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ABSTRACT

The following papers are included: "Schoolhouse in the Factory: The Phenomenology of Literacy" (Berlin); "The Self-Directed Learning Projects of Employed, Married Mothers" (Boyce); "The Forever Plan: Adult Men Who Continue in Postsecondary Education Compared with Those Who Drop Out" (Brown); "Burnout and Associated Factors among Administrators/Mid-Managers of the Cooperative Extension Service in the North Central Region" (Clark); "Recreating the Problem of Participation: An Example of Research to Practice" (Courtney); "Factors Affecting Displaced Workers' Participation in Education and Training Programs" (Dean); "The Tacit Dimension of Practical Knowledge and the Utilization of Research in Adult Education" (Dirkx); "Siddhartha's Spiritual Odyssey: An Analysis of Herman Hesse's Siddhartha Based on Fowler's Stages of Faith Development" (Ferro); "The Relationship between Anomia, Life Satisfaction and Education-Related Variables among Older Adults" (Fisher); "Professional Certification: A Critical Research Issue" (Galbraith and Gilley); "Assessing Training and Development Needs" (Grimstad); "Factors Leading to Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction in Adult Basic Education" (Heresz and Orem); "The Role of Interpersonal Communication in Teaching and Learning Situations" (Ihejieto-Aharanwa); "Graduate Studies in Adult Education: An Analysis of Doctoral Programs and Professional Opinions" (Kowalski and Weaver); "An Analysis of Selected Personal Variables Associated with Persistence in a Nontraditional, Liberal Arts Upper-Division Degree Program" (Langenbach and Korhonen); "Identifying the Adult Literacy Research Needs of Indiana: Utilization of the Nominal Group Technique" (Ludden and Wood); "An Analysis of Factors Contributing to the Advancement of Women in Senior Managerial Positions" (Lyons-DeHority); "Application of the Community Education Process

Model" (Marshall); "The Creation of Deviance among Adult High School Noncompleters: Relationship of Preadulthood Stigmas with Adult Life-Styles" (Martin); "Returning Adult Women Students: What Are Their Special Needs?" (Muench); "The Measurement of Learning Style: A Critique of Four Assessment Tools with Implications for Research and Practice" (Sewell and Coggins); "Program Evaluation in Adult Education: A Survey of Participants in a University Summer Program" (Snoddy and Levine); "A Whole Language Approach to the Teaching of Adults: A Close Look at Writing" (Soifer and Simmons); "Is to Know to Do?" (Steele); "Age Differences in Student Perceptions of Adult Learner Needs in Selected Community Colleges" (Thompson); "An Ethnology of Physicians for Social Responsibility: Nonformal Adult Education for Social Change" (Turner); "Factors Affecting Self-Esteem in Adult Undergraduate Students" (Van Ness); "Computer Awareness for Adults" (Young and Vernon); and "Issues in the Practice of Action Research" (Zuniga and Smith). (MN)

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SCHOOLHOUSE IN THE FACTORY: THE PHENOMONOLOGY OF LITERACY

Lawrence S. Berlin
Associate Professor of Higher and Adult Continuing Education
School of Education
The University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Mi. 48109

ABSTRACT

This study of the multiple factors affecting motivation, participation and persistence in adult basic education was conducted in a large industrial plant. Data sources included on-site observation, in-depth interviews, survey questionnaires and analysis of program records. An innovative educational program and an experimental advocacy project were features of the in-plant "schoolhouse." Analysis of quantitative data revealed that attrition rates were similar to national norms for participants who made an independent decision to enroll while participants recruited through the advocacy program dropped out at a much higher rate. The empirical data were of limited value in accounting for motivation and persistence or in explicating attitudes and deeply held beliefs about education. Much more revealing were data drawn from interviews and observations. These data revealed that participants believe that education has the power to transform their lives; that education is a liberating force; that education is special and clearly different from training. These beliefs are reinforced by the quality of their experiences in the factory schoolhouse and by the ways in which the staff relate to participants. Intrinsic motivations reflected in independent, self-reliant, autonomous decisions regarding educational activities account for and explain much of the phenomenon of participation and persistence.

Schoolhouse in the Factory: The Phenomenology of Literacy

Introduction

This research was conducted at a basic education program located in a large industrial complex. The research project extended over a period of fourteen months during which time an innovative basic education program was put in place, a recruitment campaign mounted, a special advocacy project initiated and the "schoolhouse" in the factory opened its doors. At the end of fourteen months almost 300 workers had enrolled in at least one of the offerings of the program.

This paper is drawn from a much larger monograph which describes in detail the research protocol, the analyses of the data sets, and offers an elaborate discussion of the research findings. What follows is a necessarily truncated version of the study presented in an expository fashion in order to highlight the most significant findings and to draw attention to those elements in the research which suggest or point to practice implications.

Background

The 1982 contractual negotiations between the United Auto Workers and Ford Motor Company resulted in a unique employee development and training effort. The "nickel an hour fund," as it is often called, refers to the fact that Ford and UAW agreed that five cents for every hour worked by UAW-Ford employees would be placed in a special Employee Development and Training Program (EDTP) fund. Resources from the EDTP fund would be used to finance a variety of development and training programs for Ford employees. Employee Development and Training Programs are under the direction of the UAW-Ford National Development and Training Center (NDTC) in conjunction with joint local UAW-Ford Employee Development and Training Program Committees.

One of the many innovative EDTP sponsored programs is an educational program located inside a large automotive facility. The program was developed after an initial assessment of development and training needs among the plant's approximately 1,200 employees, revealed that approximately one-third of the active employees had less than a high school education. A pilot project was designed to offer a program aimed at enhancing basic educational skills in a classroom constructed inside the plant. Arrangements were made with a "provider consortium" made up of two local public school adult education programs to provide instruction and administration. Operating costs for the program were divided between local and state education funds and NDTC funds.

Research Questions

Of the many issues and questions which this research project addressed the following were central:

- Will an innovative literacy project reduce attrition rates?
- What are the sources of motivation for participation?
- Do specially trained peer advocates make a difference in participation and retention rates?
- What is the larger meaning of literacy and education in the lives of the participants?

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

The questions posed by this study required a variety of data collection and analysis procedures. Data were collected from as many relevant sources as were available. Three basic methods were used to secure data--survey forms, individual and group interviews and review and analysis of Education Development Center (EDC) participant records. In addition to the above sources of data, invaluable information and insight regarding the dynamics and functioning of the EDC, were obtained through on-site observation of the various aspects of the programs.

Below are the specific sources of data:

- Questionnaire to 176 plant management personnel and UAW officials.
- Questionnaire to EDC instructional staff.
- Group interview with EDC staff.
- Individual and group interviews with more than 40 EDC program participants.
- Individual and group interviews with Peer Education Advisors (PEA).
- Interviews with PEA trainers.
- PEA Interim and Final Reports.
- Group interview with local UAW/Ford Joint EDTP Committee.
- Interview with Plant Manager.
- Evaluators' on-site observations.
- Analysis of Program Records.

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

Each finding is followed by a brief discussion which points to some of the implications inherent in the findings.

Before proceeding to list the specific findings, we are compelled by the data to try to portray the strength and intensity of what is by far the over-riding theme to emerge from the study: THE IDEA OF EDUCATION HAS A POWERFUL HOLD ON THE MINDS OF THE EMPLOYEES WHO ARE ENROLLED IN THE EMPLOYEE DEVELOPMENT CENTER. This theme, which permeated all of the formal interviews and recurred constantly throughout conversations with participants, staff, and almost everyone who was associated with the pilot project, is both the single most-important finding, as well as the most difficult to capture in a research report.

An analysis of interviews with participants reveals that no matter how stated, regardless of context, and despite the specific topic of conversation, these individuals believe that education (as distinguished from "training") can liberate them, can enrich their lives, can be the vehicle which will allow them to do and accomplish things they believe are important to them. Education has a near irresistible appeal. While many of the participants spoke of the utilitarian implications of education, what was most evident was how deeply they felt about the meaning of education. Education represents an idea, a touchstone which literally has become a matter of faith.

What is perhaps most significant about this profound faith in the idea of education is that it is expressed by a group of people who have been defeated by their previous encounters with formal education. In their remarks, these men displayed a sophisticated ability to distinguish between "education" and "schooling". Though they were highly critical of their experiences with the latter, they have clearly not lost faith in the former. So powerful is the idea, so appealing the possibilities of a right educational encounter, that the participants in the EDC program were willing to give it still another go. More importantly, they believe that this program is working for them.

PARTICIPANTS

Motivation for participation varies greatly, yet a set of common reasons are evident.

Participants describe their reasons for enrolling in such terms as "I wish to improve myself", "Perhaps I can qualify for a better position", "This is something I always planned to do", "I want to complete my high school education", "I need to brush up my basic skills", "I'm looking ahead". All of these suggest quite practical reasons for enrollment. At the same time the participants reported that education is essential for gaining insight into their lives and providing direction for the future. When discussing reasons for participation, the respondents often indicated that the decision to enroll was a personal choice--an act taken independent of any consideration related to company or union interest in the EDC.

The retention rate in the Learning Center approximates national norms in basic education programs.

The drop-out rate in public school basic education and high school completion programs is nearly fifty percent (50%) of initial enrollments. This figure has remained consistent across the country with only slight variation from year-to-year. While it might have been assumed that an in-plant setting for basic education could alter significantly the retention rate this did not occur. The same factors which operate in other programs to cause participants to drop out also are present in this program. These factors are beyond the control of the Center staff, the company and the union and are frequently beyond the control of the participant who feels compelled to withdraw from the program. Among the reasons for dropping out, the following are particularly noteworthy: domestic problems, changes in obligations in the community, work schedule alterations, a precipitous decision at the point of initial enrollment. No one reported withdrawing because of unhappiness with the program or staff or because educational expectations were not being met.

Proximity and accessibility of the program were powerful attractions for enrollment.

Invariably participants noted that the one reason for choosing the EDC program was the ease and convenience of continuing their education in an in-plant educational facility. This theme was reiterated constantly. Many participants acknowledged that they could have gone to their local public school program and received similar services but it was "too much trouble". But being able to go for the Center before or after work or during lunch was a powerful inducement leading to enrollment.

The nature of the program is especially attractive to participants.

The informal, unstructured and non-didactic quality of the educational program is especially appealing to participants. Continuous enrollment allowed people to decide the most appropriate time for starting their studies. The self-paced curriculum was perceived by participants as providing them with an opportunity to control their own educational affairs. Many participants contrasted the style, tone, and substance of their encounter in the EDC with previous educational experiences. In every instance the Center and the staff were seen in positive terms. The participants felt that they were viewed as and treated as self-reliant, autonomous adults. This contrasted with deeply felt and bitterly experienced past educational encounters.

Participants judged EDC Staff to be competent and effective as well as sympathetic to them.

One of the most forceful findings is the high regard and esteem in which the staff was viewed. They were seen as helpful, forthcoming, patient, available and accessible. Further, the staff are known to be good careful listeners, discrete, and willing to go an extra step.

Extrinsic rewards (e.g., earning a GED) are NOT an essential reason for participation.

A clear orientation to learning is present among the participants. While this is not to deny the validity of utilitarian outcomes, most enrollees hold a broader view of the meaning of their participation in the program.

The ability to relate to their children more effectively is an important factor in participation.

Many participants describe their educational experiences in the program in terms of its consequences for family life. Statements such as "My daughter even brings her school work to me now", and "Since I started this computer class my kids and I are working on computers at home", reflect an engagement in family life that, if not new, is at least different for some of the participants. Many of the participants believe that their involvement sets a standard or provides a model for their children.

Participants sense that enrollment in the program will help them become more flexible regarding future employment.

Participants constantly expressed concerns about the future, about the need to be prepared, to be able to cope with an increasingly complex society and a constantly changing work place. Education was viewed as the basic means for preparing for the future and for sustaining an orderly transition into the future.

LEARNING CENTER STAFF

The quality of the environment created by the Center Staff contributes directly and positively to learning outcomes.

The climate of the Center is viewed by participants as an important element which sustains their participation. Welcoming and warm are adjectives which best describe the Center. They want participants to feel they belong, that they are wanted, and that the staff is there to help, to counsel and to consult. Participants know this and respond to the highly affective environment which has been established. Staff treat participants as adults, adults who are engaged in a purposeful, serious and important activity.

The staff rejects the notion of failure.

Despite the fact that many participants possess low levels of formal education and limited skills, the staff approached each participant as if he is a winning student. Students do not fail. The program is designed to foster success through a scheme of self-paced limited progressions. No time limits are set, rather schedules are designed to assist participants to move comfortably from one level of achievement to the next.

Individual attention to participants' needs is fostered and highly prized.

Without doubt the fact that participants receive as much individual attention and instruction as they desire contributes enormously to the view that the Learning Center is a "special place". It is this phenomenon which distinguishes the Center from all previous educational encounters experienced by participants. The non-authoritarian, non-hierarchial and non-didactic environment has a powerful effect on participants.

PEER EDUCATION ADVISOR EXPERIMENT

A unique feature of the EDC program was the inclusion of an experimental program aimed at increasing employee participation in the programs and decreasing traditional barriers to workers' participation in continuing education. The design was based on the premise that employees would be more likely to participate in the program if they were encouraged to do so by a fellow worker. Four Peer Educational Advisors (PEAs) were selected from rank and file applicants. Prior to performing their functions, the PEAs received special training.

Enrollment increased nearly 100% during the period that the PEA's were active following their training. While it is not clear that all increase in enrollment can be ascribed to the PEA effort, a significant portion is directly attributable to their activities. Furthermore, where the outcomes of the PEA recruiting activity are not clear or appear to be indirectly or distantly related to decisions to enroll, we do know that the PEA effort tended to reinforce earlier marketing efforts and remind workers of the opportunity available to them to further their education.

Using respected peers is an important and successful recruiting device.

Advocates for the program played an important part in leading people to enroll. To the extent possible, early enrollees in the program who have hadpositive and successful

experiences, should be viewed as potential recruiters. Recruiting is but the first step in a marketing effort. Equally important is the need to find devices which sustain participation. Here, again, the idea of advocates can be useful; those who are successful participants can contribute using a buddy system as a support mechanism.

PEA recruitment manifested a competitive dimension.

To some extent the PEA recruitment effort appeared to take on elements of competition between the PEA's. While not a game, it was not unnatural in the first go-around of a pilot experiment for the trainees to approach their task with uncritical enthusiasm. It appears in some instances that the goal was simply to enroll the greatest number, rather than providing workers with the necessary information which would allow them to make an informed and intelligent decision. It appears that a significantly higher percentage of drop-outs occurred among enrollees who registered following the PEA recruitment effort. Perhaps many of these people enrolled for the wrong reasons and they may have been the wrong people for this program.

People learn about the program from both formal and informal sources of information, but the decision to participate is most frequently based on informal interactions and discussions.

Time and again participants reported that they had received literature about the program, read about it in the Union paper, observed the posters in the plant, received promotional handouts. But it was not until they talked with a fellow worker or visited with a participant, chatted with a staff person, was the decision to enroll made. Personal decision followed interpersonal encounters.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Who Participates in EDC Programs and Why?

Who? The demographic and motivation characteristics of participants in adult/continuing education programs is a source of perennial speculation among adult educators. In general, adults face a number of barriers that inhibit their participation in formal learning activities. Patricia Cross has classified these barriers as: Situational, Institutional, and Dispositional. Data collected provide concrete examples of the existence of each of the three types of barriers within the work force of the plant.

A profile of EDC participants drawn from interview data, reveals that participants can be distinguished from the larger work-force along a very critical dimension. In general, these individuals appear to be relatively free of the traditional barriers to participation listed above. Taken as a group, they expressed fewer situational, institutional, and dispositional barriers than might be expected from a random sample of their peers. They frequently reported such key factors as the support of their wives and/or families, the fact that their families were grown and the time was available, the support of their supervisors, and a fundamental belief in their own ability to benefit from the program. This finding, though seemingly predictable and obvious, must be regarded as tentative and in need of more rigorous investigation than was possible in this study.

Why? As might be expected, specific motivations for participation vary greatly among the participants. Content analysis of participant interview data reveals that these motivations can be broadly categorized as "extrinsic" or "intrinsic". Extrinsic motivations are illustrated by such statements as "this might help me get a better job", "I'm looking ahead of the future", "The auto industry is changing". "You need more education just to hang on to your job". All these reasons suggest practical, utilitarian reasons for enrollment.

At the same time, participants also expressed the following motivations: "I wish to improve myself", "Education makes you a better person", "I feel like I'll be able to get more out of life if I have more education". These statements reveal a belief that participation in EDC programs will help themgain insight into their lives and provide the basis for an overall improvement in the quality of their lives.

It is most important to note that, without exception, each participant interviewed incorporated both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors into his response to questions about reasons for enrolling.

Who Quits? As important as the question of who participates, versus who does not, is the question of who enrolls and then quits or drops out?

Nearly one out of every two people who participate in an adult basic education program in the United States will drop out prior to completing a course of study. This attrition rate of fifty percent is a national norm against which basic education programs measure themselves. Significant variations from this norm are cause for close scrutiny--they may tell us that something special or important is at work which leads to an unusually high rate of retention or conversely, an alarmingly high rate of attrition.

The researchers initially speculated that because of the physical proximity of the EDC to prospective participants and the appeal of a continuous enrollment opportunity coupled with a self-paced program of study, the drop-out rate would be noticeably less than the national norm. This was not to be the case. The attrition rate in the DEP program conforms closely to

the reported standard and the data reflect patterns similar to those reported in other programs.

The aggregate drop-out rate among participants was 59.7%. When the enrollments are differentiated on the basis of pre- and post-PEA recruitment efforts, a striking difference in attrition is observed. For the pre-PEA period 48.3% of the participants left the program while 80.4% of those recruited through the PEA effort dropped out. The only reasonable inference to be drawn from these data and an analysis of the stated reasons for dropping out is that those participants who were recruited through the PEA effort were not as prepared to make the commitment to further education as those who made an independent decision to enroll.

Why do participants drop out? Despite the accessibility of the program, the ease of registration and enrollment, the convenience of a self-paced program of study and the clearly appetizing environment and welcoming, competent staff, the drop-out rate falls well within national norms. Nearly 40% indicated that problems with jobs and job related schedules compelled them to drop out. Even a program and a staff pattern and an hourly schedule as flexible as that maintained by the EDC cannot overcome the impact of shift changes, job reclassifications and changes, overtime or layoff. Equally important are personal/domestic considerations coupled with medical reasons and transportation. We judged the latter reason, transportation, to be personal factor; either an economic consideration or a dependency on others that is not inherently work related. An additional 40% of the stated reasons for dropping out can be accounted for by personal considerations.

Why do participants stay? The persistence factor in adult basic education is poorly understood and, for the most part, eludes quantitative analysis. Persistence is related to original reasons or motivation for registration--the clearer the reason, the more self-conscious the intent, the greater the likelihood participants will persevere. A close reading of the transcripts of the interviews, leads to the conclusion that participation in the program and persistence in attendance was as much a function of intrinsic motivation and personal conviction and attitude as it was an expectation of an extrinsic reward.

In addition, participants received a great deal of direct and indirect support which sustained their continued participation. We have already noted the quality of the physical environment as an important contributing factor. Furthermore, the quality of the EDC staff and the powerful affective climate created by them is almost irresistible. Participants both like the Center and want to be in the Center.

Evidence from another source reveals another dimension of support. While somewhat more tenuous and difficult to interpret, the observations and attitudes of plant managers and union officials reveal almost universal regard
for the program and positive beliefs about the potential benefits of the program--benefits which would accrue to participants, co-workers, the company and the union. It is reasonable to conclude that many of the participants are at least aware of the attitudes of their union colleagues and managers.

Finally, achievement must be viewed in the context of expressed beliefs about the meaning of education. Over and over, participants reported that what was important was the opportunity to actively take part in a learning endeavor. It was not the idea of going to school that necessarily appealed to participants, rather, what was considered to be most important was that their engagement in the EDC represented a realization that education could be a meaningful part of their lives and answered a deep and continuing need.

APPLICATION TO PRACTICE

The research and findings suggest a number of practice implications. For example, the effort to control attrition and reduce what is commonly perceived of as an unacceptable drop-out rate may be a misplaced and misdirected effort which deters practitioners from more productive enterprises. More effort should be directed to helping prospective participants examine their reasons for joining literacy programs so that a deeper understanding of motives is realized that reflect a clear headed, self reliant and ultimately personally honest decision to participate.

A particularly important lesson of this research lies in the realization that quantitative analyses of participation, retention and attrition patterns are of limited value in understanding motivation and the meaning of participation. Only by probing much more deeply into the lives of students is is possible to come close to the sources of those things which are valued and which therefore lead to a commitment to participate and assume persistence in participation.

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THE SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING PROJECTS OF EMPLOYED, MARRIED MOTHERS

by Laurie Johnson Boyce, Ph.D.
Associate Professor Family Development
Program Design Specialist
Family Living Education
University of Wisconsin-Extension

Abstract

Adult learning projects can play a role in helping the married, employed mothers manage family life complexity. The study found learning projects were related to perceived well-being. Married, employed mothers of young children (n=154) were surveyed. These mothers had children enrolled in one of thirteen day care centers which were randomly drawn from a population of licensed Wisconsin full-time, year round center-based day care providers.

The typical respondent had participated in five learning projects over the past 12 months. These were largely self-directed and relied on four or more resources, often nonformal resources, such as talking with others or reading. The predominant area of interest was family, followed closely by career/job related learning projects.

Those mothers who listed a high number of learning projects and who reported a self-planned "most important" project had a higher level of perceived well-being. Mothers who had self-planned their "most important" learning project expressed higher perceived well-being than those who used other planning methods. Self-directed learners used more resources than those learners who followed other planning approaches.

There was a statistically significant correlation between number of learning projects and perceived well-being. Whether involvement in learning projects increases perceived well-being or whether those individuals who express higher well-being are involved in more learning projects warrants further investigation.

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Laurie Johnson Boyce, Family Living Education, 610 Langdon Street, Rm. 435, Madison, WI 53703, phone (608) 262-9675.

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The Self-Directed Learning Projects of Employed, Married Mothers

Introduction and Problem

The day-to-day lives of dual-earner couples can best be described as a juggling and balancing act. The number of families in which both spouses work outside the home is increasing. Dual-earner married couples now make up 62% of all married couples with earnings (J.C. Penney Company, 1984). All indications are that womens' employment will continue to be a prominent force in American society - the growing majority will have no adult in the home full time.

As both spouses enter the marketplace, research indicates that the number of roles managed within a family increases (Pepitone-Rockwell, 1982; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1982; Skinner, 1980; Voydanoff, 1984). Adults take on role combinations of parent/earner/spouse. The work/family role coordination becomes a major issue in family life (Voydanoff, 1984).

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship among the number, nature and type of learning projects and perceived well-being of married, employed mothers of young children in dual-earner marriages. The study also looked at family life events that may motivate adult learning projects and affect perceived well-being.

Conceptual Framework

Little is specifically known about the learning projects of married, employed mothers of young children in dual-earner couples. This research sheds light on the learning projects of these women. It also takes a fresh look at their learning projects, especially self-directed efforts, and their relationship to perceived well-being.

While the numbers of dual-earners is increasing in the population, we have seen they are not finding their way to established Cooperative Extension Family Living Education group-centered programs. Dual-earners are not usually present in the registration lists of adult-learners participating in workshops, seminars or organized classes. Of course, participation in these face-to-face classes and groups is but one way adults can pursue their learning interests. More research and consideration must also be focused on the adult learning projects and use of learning resources which occur outside the more institutional educational programs.

Families face many demands throughout the family life cycle. These demands are often described in terms of family transitions, family passages, family developmental tasks or family life events (Olson & McCubbin, 1983, p. 120). Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980 found that more than a third of all workers who are married or living with a child under 18, experiences significant work/family stress. As might be expected, working parents, particularly those with preschoolers, report more stress (Portner, 1983).

Adult education programs can play a part in the management and understanding of role strain (Gray, 1980; Hester & Dickerson, 1984; Knox, 1977; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1982). Triggers do play a part in learning. As Aslanian and Brickell (1980) reported, adults traced about 80% of their learning to changes in career and family life. Tough (1982) associated "intentional changes" with periods of learning in adults' lives.

Knowing about the learning needs and current learning projects of these dual-earning adults is essential if adult education providers are to be effective with this growing segment of the population (Bird, 1983; Hester & Dickerson, 1984; Sweeten & Ladewig, 1981).

Design and Methodology

The research sample of thirteen day care centers was drawn from a population of 474 Wisconsin licensed full time, year round center-based day care providers. These thirteen centers were randomly selected through a two-stage proportional probability sampling design. A total of 654 mothers of day care center children received a questionnaire, distributed to them by their center. Data were collected and analyzed from 154 of the married, employed mothers of young children in dual-earner couples.

The questionnaire consisting of three research instruments, including: the Tough (1971) interview format (which was reconstructed into a written questionnaire format), the Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers' (1976) Index of Well-Being (formed by a combination of a life satisfaction scale and semantic differential), and the McCubbin and Patterson (1981) Family Inventory of Life Events (FILE). A phone interview format was conducted with 22 of the respondents who have volunteered for this segment of the study.

Exploratory analyses of data collected in the survey were conducted first. Inferential data analyses performed included linear regression, analysis of variance, pairwise comparisons, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation, Kruskal-Wallis (nonparametric, one-way analysis of variance), and stepwise multiple regression. The significance level used to test the research hypotheses in this study was set at the .05 level.

Findings and Discussion

Despite the busy life led by these women and the chronic shortage of time for discretionary activities, they are pursuing adult learning topics of interest to them. The typical respondent had participated in five learning projects over the past 12 months. This is somewhat lower than the number found by Tough (1971), who reported a mean of eight projects for the men and women he interviewed. These learning projects were largely self-directed and relied on four or more resources, often nonformal resources, such as talking with others or reading. (See Table 1.) These resources can be used given the limited time of the dual-earners. Self-planned learning was most often reported for married, employed mothers' two "most important" learning projects. Fifty-nine percent (59%) planned most of their "most important" projects themselves; 57.1% planned the "second most important" project. The predominant area of interest was family, followed closely by career/job related learning projects.

Those mothers who listed a high number of learning projects and who reported a self-planned "most important" project had a higher level of perceived well-being. (See Table 2.) Also, those who ranked high in stressful family life events expressed a lower level of perceived well-being ($r = -.32$). Mothers who had self-planned their "most important" learning project expressed higher perceived well-being than those who used other planning methods. Self-directed learners used more resources than those learners who followed other planning approaches.

Table 1

Distribution of Married, Employed Mothers By Resource/Location of Study

Resource Used	% "Most Important" Project
Friends, colleagues, relatives	75.0%
Books, magazines, newsletters	71.8
Professionals	51.7
Newspaper	31.5
Television or radio	29.5
Employer	26.9
Public library	20.1
Professional association(s)	18.1
Private instruction	17.5
Writing to someone	9.4
Vocational Technical Adult Education System	8.7
Religious institution	8.0
4-year university/college	6.7
Correspondence study	4.0
Local school district	2.7
University of Wisconsin-Extension	2.0
Community/junior college	2.0
Union	1.3
Other	22.2

Note. Multiple responses account for column totals above 100%.

Table 2

Stepwise Regression of Family Life Events and Adult Learning Variables to Explain Perceived Well-Being

Step	variable entered	b	R	R^2	Change in R^2	Adjusted R^2*	F to enter
1	Total family life events	-0.1329	.3353	.1124	.1124	.1056	16.47*
2	Level of learning	0.2981	.4913	.2413	.1289	.2296	21.92*
3	Self-Planned nature of learning of "most important" project	1.0650	.5316	.2825	.0412	.2657	7.35*

*p < .05.
*Adjusted for degrees of freedom.

There was a statistically significant correlation between number of learning projects and perceived well-being. There existed a low, positive correlation between the two variables ($r = .35$). The findings of this study support the model offered by Tough (1971). Tough's model recognizes the positive outcomes of a learning project. Whether involvement in learning projects increases perceived well-being or whether those individuals who express higher well-being are involved in more learning projects warrants further investigation.

Implications and Challenges for Adult Educators

Further program directions must recognize the predominant use of self-directed learning and heavy reliance on nonformal resources for learning. Specific recommendations for adult educators include: a) providing resource support to self-directed learners, b) combining group learning options with self-directed learning, c) improving the quality of self-directed learning, and d) developing the home as a learning center.

Future outreach policies should be more responsive to the needs and interests of dual-earning adults and should include emphasis on the following:

- providing time for the sharing of life experiences among participants,
- making learning projects/topics relevant and immediately applicable,
- including leisure along with educational efforts,
- integrating family life programming into career/work educational sessions,
- keeping costs low, offering child care alternatives,
- focusing some programming on helping adults learn how to learn, and
- offering self-directed learning helps and independent study.

Knowles (1980) notes that the ultimate objective of adult educators is to help people grow in their ability to learn. The adult educator should spend less time deciding what students should learn and then transmitting it to them, and more and more time helping these adults discover for themselves what they need to learn and helping them find and use the most effective resources, for learning those things. We need to do more to help adults learn how to learn in order to meet their own needs.

Tough (1980, p. 40) states that adult educators should respond to the newly emerging picture of individual learning. Tough challenges adult educators to go beyond simply providing individualized learning resources such as tapes, programmed instruction, or books. The challenge is to help adults choose what and how to learn. This can be done through offering programs that address these questions. Individual counseling programs can be established to help adults make educational decisions. Adult educators can serve as consultants to the learners', helping to establish standards and guidelines for self-directed learning efforts. Finally methods and resources can be developed which will aid the adult learner to achieve competence in planning, such as through printed support materials.

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THE FOREVER PLAN: ADULT MEN WHO CONTINUE IN POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION COMPARED WITH THOSE WHO DROP OUT

Janet V. Brown

Learning Lab Director

University of Wisconsin Center-Waukesha County
1500 University Drive
Waukesha, Wisconsin 53188

Abstract

A large body of research exists on adults who return to school but there have been few attempts to discriminate among adult groups by age, sex, or level of enrollment. Retention literature focuses on the recruitment and retention of traditional-aged students. As a result, it is difficult to determine the types of services, academic programs, or retention policies which would best serve the populations of adults who enroll in undergraduate programs. This study focuses on the difference between adult men who continue in college programs and those who drop out to determine the reasons for the difference and the implications in the allocation of resources. Using a theory of retention the study will examine factors in retention such as institutional commitment, goal commitment, academic integration, and social integration to determine if they are significant factors in retention or if retention is the result of personal and situational factors.

THE FOREVER PLAN: ADULT MEN WHO CONTINUE IN POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION COMPARED WITH THOSE WHO DROP OUT

Introduction

With the decline in the number of traditional-aged students, more adult students will need to be enrolled if institutions are to survive in their current form. The educational needs of adult college women have been examined and used by colleges and universities in providing access and support services for adult students. An understanding of the population of adult women college students is important, however, it is equally important to understand the reasons men enroll in college, what causes them to continue in school, and how these men perceive the institutional practices which are intended to set a climate supportive to adults in pursuing their degree programs. Few studies have focused on the educational needs of adult men who are enrolled in undergraduate programs although men comprise a potentially large student population.

Purpose of the Study

This study compares men who continue with those who drop out to see if the causes of adult dropout could be affected by institutional policy or practice. Retention literature suggests that, in addition to certain personal characteristics, people continue in school if they have a commitment to their goal, a commitment to their institution, and are integrated into the academic and social system of the institution (Tinto, 1975). Studies to assist in formulating retention strategies have focused on the retention of younger students but not on adult students. Adult students comprise a fast growing segment of the college student body and as such will be a focal point for institutional policy making. However, adult students reflect the diversity of the total scope of the population. Although they may have characteristics in common, credit students are different from continuing education students; graduate students are different from undergraduate students; and male students have different characteristics than female students. A comparison of adult male dropouts with continuers may provide some insight into the functioning of the formal and informal institutional support systems needed by these students. It may help policy makers determine the level of effort and financial support allocated in determining curriculum, support services, and scheduling.

The basic question of this study is: What is the nature of the difference between men who make regular progress toward reaching their educational goal and those who drop out and what effect do university attempts to provide a supportive climate have on the retention of adult men? Is retention a matter of situational or demographic difference and is it enhanced by social and academic integration into the institution.

METHOD

Subjects

Subjects were 321 undergraduates drawn from the 545 adult men who

were enrolled at four two-year University of Wisconsin Centers in the fall of 1983. These men comprised nearly 10% of the total enrollment at the four Centers. Students in two-year public universities have been rated as more likely to drop out than students in other types of colleges and universities (Astin, 1975; Ramist, 1981). Adult students are more likely to drop out than traditional-aged students (Astin, 1975; Beale & Noel, 1980), and full time employees are more likely to drop out than those who are not employed full time (Mischler, 1982) therefore, a study of subjects who seemed to be at high risk for retention should give insight into the characteristics of those who continue.

The university supplied the list of students along with date of birth, cumulative credits earned, grade point averages, number of semesters enrolled, racial background, and high school rank. Continuers were defined as students who were enrolled at the Center, had transferred to another post-secondary institution, or had completed their degree goal since the target semester. Dropouts were defined as students who had been enrolled for credit during the target semester and were no longer enrolled in higher education. Students who indicated an intention to return to school but who were not enrolled were classified as dropouts for the purposes of analysis.

Instrument

Data was gathered by telephone interview using a structured questionnaire with both fixed-choice and open-ended questions. There were two reasons for using interview as the survey method. One was an attempt to increase the response rate. Mischler (1982) had a 42% response rate to her mail survey which increased to 54% when telephone interviews were included. The other was an attempt to produce higher quality data per respondent with less response bias (Alreck & Settle, 1985). Open-ended questions required the subject to provide a response with little prompting as to possible answers. These questions included answer categories which were not provided to the subjects but which were verified by non-directive probing. The purpose in providing categories was to make the data comparable across respondents. Thus, students provided reasons for enrolling and dropping out, or suggestions for improvement of programs or services. Fixed-choice responses provided the researcher with frequency scales to provide ratings of services and support systems.

The questionnaire covered seventy-four variables including data supplied by the university. Items were developed to collect demographic information such as marital status, employment history, income level, and educational history. A series of questions examined educational goals and commitment to those goals, commitment to the institution, and integration into the academic and social systems of the institution. Information about reasons for enrolling, previous enrollment, drop-out and previous dropout, support systems developed, and problems encountered were also included. A group of ten men agreed to pilot the survey form and provided insight into revisions needed. Even so, there were a few revisions made shortly after the start of the interview process in order to refine the instrument.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was done in a series of steps beginning with descriptions of the population in terms of frequency data and percents. Cross-tabulation analysis was conducted between groups: continuers and drop-outs, drop-outs and stop-outs, single and married men, men from each campus, and men from each age category. These analyses provided descriptions of the sample and pointed to the variables which might be significant in retention. Principal components analysis was then conducted to determine which variables could be grouped into factors and if these factors provided any support to Tinto's model. Finally, a discriminant analysis was conducted to determine which factors and variables provided the greatest weight in discriminating between continuers and drop-outs and if there was any means of predicting categories.

FINDINGS

From the list of 545 men supplied by the university, interviews were conducted with 396 men, 72.7% of the population. Interview data with seventy-five men (14%) was disregarded as these men had earned undergraduate degrees and were enrolled either for personal growth or to meet prerequisites for an advanced degree. Another 27% (149 men) could not be reached to interview. The final sample of 321 men (59%) was interviewed during the fall semester of 1985, two years after the target semester.

Half of the men (51.4%, 165 men) were classified as continuers with seventy-one still enrolled at a Center and ninty-four enrolled at a transfer institution. Twenty-one men (6.5%) had completed their degree goals. Dropouts numbered 135 (42.1%) with seventy-four of these subclassified as stopouts because they indicated an intention to return to school at some point. A cross-tabulation analysis was conducted to compare stopouts with dropouts to determine if they were significantly different. In general, they seemed to belong to the same group although they did differ significantly on three variables reflecting goal commitment.

On the cross-tabulation analysis comparing continuers with drop-outs there were significant differences in several of the categories. There was no difference between the groups in such demographic variables as age, marital status, or number of children. However, in items which deal with life priorities there were some significant differences Persisters were more likely to be unemployed or if employed, to work fewer hours per week and to be enrolled in more credits per semester than dropouts. There were more persisters in the lowest income range, 0 to $10,000 per year, but were also well represented in each of the other categories.

Variables which were intended to give an indication of goal commitment included goal on enrollment and current goals, degree intention, self-rating on goal commitment, and items also related to academic integration such as grades and a knowledge of progress being made toward an academic goal. More men who dropped out had enrolled for personal growth or to learn about a specific topic. Persisters

intended to earn a degree, had a good sense of how many credits were needed to complete the degree, and could name a date when they would complete. One man, after fifteen semesters of study called his program, The Forever Plan". Dropouts generally felt that their current goals were quite different than when they first enrolled while persisters felt that their goals were either the same or more specific. As might be expected those who continued rated their commitment to their goal as significantly higher than those who dropped out.

Integration into the academic system was examined by looking at grades, use of services, and knowledge of progress toward a degree. Dropouts were less likely to use academic, career, or financial counseling. In fact many were unaware of the availability of advising services. Persisters tended to earn higher grades and rated themselves as good students. There was no difference on items such as scheduling study sessions and the ability to concentrate which Astin (1977) had found to be significant predictors of persistence.

Integration into the social system was examined by asking who the subjects talked to and how much social contact they felt they had. Continuers were more likely to know other adult students as well as younger students and to attend social events. Both groups said they talked with professors about the class they were taking but continuers were more likely to talk informally or chat with professors. Few of the men were members of clubs or employed on campus but those who continued were more likely to report this sort of campus involvement.

Most of the respondents gave high ratings to the Center in terms of quality and the way it handled returning adult students. However, dropouts gave somewhat lower ratings to the quality of the instructors than did the continuers. Those who transferred to other institutions, most likely a state university, also gave high ratings to the quality of the institution, its support for adults, and the quality of the instructors.

Role conflict between the role of student and that of employee seemed to be a significant item in differentiating between dropouts and persisters. Persisters felt they had support from their employers, parents and friends. Wives and significant others were given high marks in supportiveness. More than 66% of them were rated as very supportive by both groups. Only 1% were rated as not supportive. In a situation where choices had to be made, continuers were more likely to choose school over family or jobs.

Support for Tinto's model was found in the factor analysis with social integration items clustering together in two categories and accounting for 17% and 7.4% of the variance, institutional commitment items accounting for 9.5% of the variance, academic integration accounting for 6% of the variance. In the discriminant analysis five of the seven factors were significant as well as age, grade point average, amount of employment, and number of credits earned per semester. In a stepwise analysis which correctly predicted the category of 70% of the sample, grade point average was the strongest predictor of continuing or dropping out. The academic integration factor was the second predictor followed by number of credits per semester, institutional

commitment, age, amount of employment, and institutional commitment in terms of rating professors. Social integration, which seemed to be an important discriminator in earlier analyses, was eliminated as important in the stepwise discriminant analysis. Dropouts who were misclassified in the discriminant analysis turned out to be stopouts in 75% of the cases. Continuers who were misclassified were more difficult to analyze although some were completers who were thinking about returning to school.

IMPLICATIONS

There are several tentative implications which can be drawn from this study. First, instructors were the most important representatives of the institution. They were in contact with students more than any other personnel. As such, they need to be able to provide some level of academic advising, they must be competent in delivering their material, and they must demonstrate a measure of respect for the adult standing of these students.

Scheduling was cited as a major problem by many of the respondents. Institutions need to be aware of work shifts and schedule classes to accommodate morning, afternoon, or evening students. Since careers were cited for the major reason for enrollment, career track courses in such fields as business and engineering, and degree requirements should be available for students who can only attend in the morning or evening.

Advising services were cited as important but need to be more accessible with evening hours and high visibility. More use might be made of print media such as the student newspaper and mailings since these were widely used sources of information.

Finally, it should be noted that a high percentage of adult men stay in school and complete degrees. Recruiting efforts should be made to enroll these students and campus resources should be allocated to retain them. Further studies might examine recruitment, services needed, transfer problems, scheduling difficulties, and curriculum.

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BURNOUT AND ASSOCIATED FACTORS AMONG ADMINISTRATORS/MID-MANAGERS OF THE COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE IN THE NORTH CENTRAL REGION

Dr. Richard W. Clark
Interim Coordinator of Staff Development/
Assistant Professor of Agricultural and Extension Education
The Pennsylvania State University
335 Agricultural Administration Building
University Park, PA 16802

Abstract

Objective of the Study. The objectives of the study were to: 1) determine the level of burnout, job satisfaction, personal strain, occupational stress, and personal coping resources of Associate Directors, Assistant Directors, and District Supervisors of the Cooperative Extension Service in the North Central Region; 2) determine the extent of association between burnout and personal characteristics, job satisfaction, personal strain, occupational stress, and personal coping; 3) determine if differences in levels of burnout exist between job categories.

Procedure. A mailed questionnaire was sent to Associate Directors (N=19), Assistant Directors (N=36), and District Supervisors (N=67) located in eleven states in the North Central Region. This represented a census of the population. A 100 percent response rate was obtained.

Findings and conclusions. The majority of administrators/mid-managers experienced low to moderate levels of burnout. A sizeable percentage of District Supervisors and Assistant Directors experienced high burnout and needed attention related to on-the-job emotional exhaustion, while Associate Directors needed assistance related to depersonalization of clientele.

As occupational stress and personal strain increase, the level of burnout increases. As job satisfaction and personal coping increase, the level of burnout decreases.

BURNOUT AND ASSOCIATED FACTORS AMONG ADMINISTRATORS OF THE COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE IN THE NORTH CENTRAL REGION

Over the past ten years, there has been an explosion of research and inquiry into the burnout phenomenon. Freudenberger (1983) stated that, "The rapidity with which the term and concept of burnout have been incorporated into the daily argot of our society is astonishing. Over the last few years, burnout has become a 'buzzword' used to convey an almost unlimited variety of social and personal problems" (p. 23).

But burnout has become more than just a hot topic. Burnout has become a serious issue that affects millions of workers (Faber, 1983). These burned out workers were, "characterized by physical depletion, by feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, by emotional drain, and by the development of negative self-concept and negative attitudes toward work, life, and other people" (Pines & Aronson, 1981, p. 15). Faber (1983) stated that,

> Burned out professionals are more frequently absent or late for work than their non-burned out colleagues; they become noticeably less idealistic and more rigid; their performance at work deteriorates markedly; and they may fantasize or actually plan on leaving the profession (p. 3).

Time magazine has indicated that the loss to organizations due to employee burnout is 50-70 billion dollars a year, which is approximately $750 for every worker (Wallis, 1983).

Burnout has been most prevalent among workers in the helping professions. Studies have shown that these individuals suffer from high stress levels (Freudenberger, 1983, 1981; Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980; Maslach, 1976; Pines & Maslach, 1978). Low job satisfaction was also a problem (Freudenberger, 1975; Maslach, 1976).

Model of Burnout

Based on research on the burnout syndrome, Newcomb and Clark (1985) developed the model below which summarizes the burnout process.

The Individual	The Environment and its Potential Stressors	Processing of Stressors	Strain	Burnout
Personality Self Concept Ideals/Goals/ Level of Commitment How he/she views and responds to stress	Work Physical Environment Emotional Environment Load Role People Contact Collegial Social Support Autonomy Outside Work Physical environment Emotional environment Support Overall Balance	Stressors are processed through the person and their Coping Skills	Strain results from stress which is not handled appropriately	Accumulated strain to the point of reducing a person's effectiveness

Some stressors are handled and dissipated without strain

Burnout was an individual phenomenon. Each individual brought to a job situation his/her own personality, self-concept, goals, ideals, and level of commitment. The individual also had his/her own unique view of stress. This stress may be the result of the physical environment, emotional tensions, work load, the work role, people contact, or lack of collegial or social support. The individual must then process this stress and utilize some type of coping mechanism to dissipate the stress. Those stresses that were handled correctly ceased to be problematic. However, unresolved stress progressed into strain. The accumulation of strain eventually lead to a reduction of individual effectiveness and, ultimately, burnout.

This model, which effectively ties together the major factors associated with burnout, was used as the basis for this study of Extension administrators. The model focused on the individual, the work environment and its stressors, strain, and burnout.

Objectives

The objectives of the study were to: (1) determine the level of burnout, job satisfaction, personal strain, occupational stress, and personal coping resources of Associate Directors, Assistant Directors, and District Directors of the Cooperative Extension Service in the North Central Region of the United States; (2) determine the extent of association between burnout and personal characteristics, job satisfaction, personal strain, occupational stress and personal coping; (3) determine if differences in levels of burnout exist among job classifications.

Methodology

The population for this study consisted of Associate Directors (N=19), Assistant Directors (N=36), and District Supervisors (N=67) in the Cooperative Extension Service located in the North Central Region. The North Central Region consisted of the following states: Illinois, Iowa, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, and Wisconsin. Nebraska declined to participate in the study and was not included. Due to the small number of individuals in the population, a census was used for the study with data collected by means of a questionnaire mailed to all individuals. A 100 percent response rate was obtained.

This study represented descriptive-correlational research which investigated the relationship between burnout and the independent variables of age, marital status, sex, number of children, years in present position, job satisfaction, occupational stress, personal strain, and personal coping resources.

Major Findings

The following were the major findings of the study:

Demographics

The mean age for the overall population was 48.39 years. Approximately 80 percent of the administrators/mid-managers were married. Ninety-seven individuals were male (79.5 percent) and twenty were female (20.5 percent). The majority of the individuals had children (86.1 percent). The majority of the administrators/mid-managers (52.5 percent) had less than five years of experience in the present job. Associate Directors had the least amount of tenure in the present position (3.68 years), as compared to Assistant Directors (6.50 years) and District Supervisors (8.51 years).

Job Satisfaction

The majority of individuals (96.7 percent) indicated that they either "agreed" or "strongly agreed" with those items indicating satisfaction with the job. All three job positions indicated approximately the same level of satisfaction.

Occupational Stress

The majority of the individuals in each job position scored in the two lower quartiles, indicating medium to low levels of occupational stress. Scores on the occupational stress subscales indicated that role insufficiency, role ambiguity, and role boundary were not problems for administrators. Role overload and responsibility constituted the largest portion of occupational stress. Assistant Directors indicated the highest level of overload; Associate Directors indicated the highest pressures due to being responsible for others.

Personal Strain

Personal strain did not appear to be a problem for administrators/mid-managers. The majority of individuals were in the two lower quartiles, which indicated fairly low levels of personal strain. Assistant Directors had the highest level of personal strain, followed by Associate Directors and District Supervisors.

Personal Coping

Associate Directors indicated the highest level of coping resources to deal with stress, followed by District Supervisors and Assistant Directors. The majority of individuals scored in the highest two quartiles, indicating good usage of personal coping resources. Recreation as a coping resource was low for all three groups, while all three groups indicated high levels of social support.

Burnout

The majority of administrators/mid-managers were found to experience low to moderate levels of burnout as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Percentages of individuals scoring in the high burnout category ranged from approximately 12-34 percent, depending on the subscale.

Approximately 19 percent of the Assistant Directors and 21 percent of the District Supervisors had high levels of emotional exhaustion. Associate Directors indicated the highest levels of depersonalization (31.6 percent). The majority of administrators were in the low burnout category when looking at personal accomplishment. Assistant Directors indicated the highest percentage (19.4 percent) of burnout as related to personal accomplishment (Table 1).

Relationship of Burnout to Selected Variables

Moderate to substantial relationships were found between job satisfaction, occupational stress, personal strain, personal coping and burnout (emotional exhaustion and depersonalization). Slightly lower relationships were found between these variables and the burnout subscales related to personal accomplishment (Table 2).

Moderate to substantial relationships were found among the independent variables. As job satisfaction tended to increase, the amount of occupational stress and personal strain decreased. The higher the occupational stress, the higher the personal strain and the lower the amount of usage of personal coping techniques (Table 3).

Conclusions

The following conclusions were based on the interpretation of data presented in the study:

1. Administrators/mid-managers who experienced higher levels of occupational stress tended to have higher levels of personal strain. Administrators/ mid-managers who had high usage of personal coping strategies tended to have lower levels of stress and strain and, ultimately, less burnout. High occupational stress was substantially related to high levels of personal strain and, ultimately, burnout.

2. Approximately one-fifth of the administrators/mid-managers experienced high levels of burnout which demand attention. Time pressures and role overload appear to be a contributor to this problem. The extent of burnout was sufficient to suspect that individuals may be spread too thin and that additional personnel support or reduced job responsibilities may alleviate this problem.

Table 1

Level of Burnout of Extension Administrators/ Mid-Managers in the North Central Region
N=122

Burnout Subscale	Level of Burnout	Associate Director N	Associate Director %	Assistant Director N	Assistant Director %	District Supervisor N	District Supervisor %
Emotional Exhaustion Frequency	H	2	10.5	7	19.4	14	20.9
	M	9	47.4	16	44.5	19	28.4
	L	8	42.1	13	36.1	34	50.7
Emotional Exhaustion Intensity	H	0	0.0	8	22.2	12	17.9
	M	12	63.2	13	36.1	29	43.3
	L	7	36.8	15	41.7	26	38.8
Depersonalization Frequency	H	6	31.6	5	13.9	10	14.9
	M	4	21.0	13	36.1	25	37.3
	L	9	47.4	18	50.0	32	47.8
Depersonalization Intensity	H	5	26.3	12	33.3	25	37.3
	M	8	42.1	13	26.1	22	32.8
	L	6	31.6	11	30.6	20	29.9
Personal Accomplishment Frequency	H	0	0.0	7	19.4	8	11.9
	M	3	15.8	6	16.7	7	10.5
	L	16	84.2	33	63.9	52	77.6
Personal Accomplishment Intensity	H	3	15.8	11	30.6	18	26.9
	M	8	42.1	13	36.1	20	29.8
	L	8	42.1	12	33.3	29	43.3

Table 2

The Relationships Among Burnout Subscales and Job Satisfaction, Occupational Stress, Personal Strain, and Personal Coping
N=122

Burnout Subscale	Job Satisfaction	Occupational Stress	Personal Strain	Personal Coping
EEF	-.32	.52	.71	-.46
EEI	-.25	.35	.48	-.30
DPF	-.35	.59	.58	-.38
DPI	-.16	.34	.33	-.28
PAI	.29	-.11	-.22	.34
PAF	.15	-.03	-.12	.35

Table 3

Relationships Among Job Satisfaction, Occupational Stress, Personal Strain, and Personal Coping

Variables	Job Satisfaction	Occupational Stress	Personal Strain	Personal Coping
Job Satisfaction	1.00			
Occupational Stress	-.44	1.00		
Personal Strain	-.44	.63	1.00	
Personal Coping	.32	-.42	-.62	1.00

3. Approximately one-third of the Associate Directors scored high in the depersonalization category of burnout. These individuals tended to treat individuals in a callous style and distanced themselves from other individuals. The opinion of the researcher is that this may be due to the nature of the job. The position requires much time doing paperwork, budgeting and reporting, while there appears to be less people contact.

4. The demographic variables had little relationship with the level of burnout among administrators/mid-managers.

5. The more satisfied the administrator/mid-manager, the lower the level of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and the higher the feeling of personal accomplishment. The data indicated higher job satisfaction was associated with lower levels of personal strain and lower levels of occupational stress.

6. The majority of administrators had low levels of occupational stress. As the amount of role overload increased, the amount of burnout among administrators/ mid-managers also tended to increase. Of the three job positions, Assistant Directors experienced the largest percentage of role overload.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were suggested by the researcher based on the findings of this study.

1. District Supervisors, Assistant Directors, Associate Directors, and Directors of the Cooperative Extension Service should be made aware of the problems associated with burnout. This should be done through seminars, workshops, or meetings, which include managing time, communicating, planning leisure time, reducing stress, controlling personal feelings, and recognition of burnout symptoms. Support systems should be established to assist in coping with burnout.

2. A job analysis should be conducted for the positions of District Supervisor, Assistant Director, and Associate Director. This job analysis should be examined to determine duties of the job which may lead to stress or strain. Individual and organizational strategies should then be developed to help reduce potential stressors. Consideration should be given to reduced work loads for District Supervisors and Assistant Directors.

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Recreating the Problem of Participation:

An example of research to practice

Sean Courtney, Ed.D.

Graduate Faculty

National College of Education
1000 Executive Parkway
Creve Coeur, Missouri 63141-6325
U.S.A.

ABSTRACT

This paper considers the relationship between research and practice in the context of the problem area known as participation in adult education (PAE). The stance taken here is that researchers ought not to be under the obligation of justifying their inquiry to practitioners nor of spelling out the implications of their findings for everyday practice. The validity of this argument is examined in the light of research on PAE. Historically, PAE has been a problem of both practical and theoretical origins. Corresponding to each has been a typical research mode: one which focuses on the definition and accumulation of facts, and one which approaches the question of causality within a specific epistemological framework. The first I have termed non-paradigmatic research, the second paradigmatic. Only the first of these has any 'obligation' to practice. The second owes its structure and form to the 'internal logic' of theory-building, and as such has no obligation whatever to practice. It is the duty of non-paradigmatic researchers to produce significant findings and, where possible, explanations of them. It is the duty of the practitioner to reflect on these findings, interpret them, and use them as needed.

RECREATING THE PROBLEM OF PARTICIPATION

An Example of Research to Practice

Anyone who jogs through parks for fun or exercise knows the Ferrier Parcourse. And anyone who is familiar with a Parcourse knows the distinction between research and practice. For the gist of the instructions, at the beginning of this typical Californian invention, is that if you do not follow a certain exercise regime, you will not increase your cardiovascular rate and will not attain a level of fitness above your current endowment. Run at least three times a week, they say. Achieve twenty minutes of consecutive effort where your Exercise Heart Range is about 70-85% of its maximum. If you do less, you might as well not even bother. Listen to what they say: if you run twice a week, in mad spurts, exhausting yourself in the effort, and ending with a breath drawn as if through fire, it will do you no good. That is what the instructions say.

All of this appears counterintuitive. Some exercise, it stands to reason, is better than none. Not so. Tests have shown that unless there is a certain minimal consistency to your efforts, they are not worth it. That is what research has shown. Now the choice is yours. You can continue as before believing your half-hearted efforts are beneficial, because they <u>feel</u> that way, or you can alter your regime.

The situation with Parcourses and exercise illustrate an important relationship between research and practice that adult educators are apt to ignore. The task of researchers is to produce the facts. It is up to us, as practitioners to interpret those facts for our own ends. The problem, then, is not with research being tangential to practice, or being too abstruse, theoretical, and so forth. Rather, the facts that researchers have uncovered are clear enough. What is lacking is the will-power, the determination, the commitment or the resources to follow through on the implications of those facts. Gatherings such as the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference rest on a highly potent assumption which runs contrary to this: researchers are conducting inquiries that appear to have little value to practice, that is, in changing practice. It is the purpose of conferences like this to ask researchers to show how their research relates to practice.

But do we ask of the researchers whose work is captured in the Parcourse instructions that they demonstrate the connection between their findings and individual effort? Why should we? Is it not up to individual men and women--practitioners--to draw their own conclusions? And if the analogy will serve, is it not up to adult education practitioners to interpret research results for themselves and try to test their relevance to their own practice by doing something with them?

Let us now see whether this analogy is applicable to adult education research by focusing on a key problem area familiar to adult educators: the phenomenon which goes by the phrase "participation in adult" (PAE).

The Problem of Participation

PAE appears in the phenomenological field of adult education as a dual concern of practical and theoretical origin. On the side, it has to do with the question: How do we attract more people to our programs? How do we reach the unreachable in our communities? etc. (Brunner, 1959; Douglah, 1970). On the other side, it has to do with a deep and abiding question: What are the causes of participation? Or to put it in the precise words of one writer:

> When adults want or need to learn something, under what conditions do they participate in organized adult education, or engage in purposeful but informal learning activities, or fail to engage in learning at all? (Darkenwald, 1980)

The questions overlap. Administrators and teachers who ask the first are interested in finding answers to a problem that goes sometimes by the name of marketing and sometimes is called recruitment. Asking this can lead to questions of the second kind and the problem of causation. Correspondingly, researchers who begin with the second will often preface their inquiry with a remark or two on the relevance of their findings to marketing (Goodnow, 1982) or recruitment (Boshier, 1971).

Research on PAE takes one of two basic forms. The first, and that which contains by far the largest quantity of research, has as its principal function the establishment of facts about PAE. Most forms of "clientele analysis" (Knox, 1965), for example, fall into this category. They are projects carried out by local states, institutions, and individual agencies and programs to determine facts about their clientele, e.g., demographics. Also, in this category, can be found major national surveys, such as Johnstone and Rivera (1965), whose function is to determine reliable population estimates and who in providing baseline data become standards for quality in research. While there is much that separates studies in this category, all are united in a general common purpose: they are attempting to establish or define facts rather than explain them. The research which led to the Ferrier Parcourse would fall into this category.

It is not uncommon, however, for an explanatory dimension to enter this category. Anyone familiar with the Johnstone and Rivera work, or with London, Wenkert, and Hagstrom (1963), knows that a good, methodologically-sound survey rarely stops

at establishing facts. It will often attempt to explain them. It does not set out, however, with explanation in mind. Its purpose, in other words, is not theory. Nor does it invoke theory to explain the unexpected. This is what I term non-paradigmatic research (though the terms policy-oriented, applied, survey, or action research, etc., are more common).

I have selected the term paradigmatic for the second major category of research, because its distinguishing characteristic is its attempt to answer Darkenwald's question above by invoking some overarching theory or epistemological framework. Boshier's work on motivational orientations is an excellent case in point. Rubenson's adaptation of Lewinian force-field analysis and Cookson's adaptation of Smith's model are others.

At the beginning I said that PAE was a problem for both theory and practice; anyone entering the literature of the subject will encounter copious examples of research corresponding to both perspectives. In the light of the distinction just made, however, does one approach to the problem take prededent over the other? In other words, what is the relationship between theory and practice, or between paradigmatic and non-paradigmatic research modes? My answer to this question depends in part on a consensus regarding the meaning of adult education. For the purposes of this discussion, here is what I take this consensus to mean.

Adult education is a pluralistic network of systems, institutions, and practices, some of which overlap, and many of which are independent and in competition. (Courtney, 1984) If there is an ideological unity to this diversity, it rests with the idea of organizing educational resources to meet individual and collective needs, effectively and fairly. Into this kind of world, theory enters at its own peril. It is not at home. And research is not central to its mission. (Courtney, 1986) Given the rootedness of adult education in praxis, therefore, it would seem to follow that PAE begins as a practical, i.e., an issue of resources, politics, etc., rather than as a theoretical problem. This perception is reinforced when we look at the literature and find researchers all too eagerly offering their findings on the altar of praxis; insisting that marketing and recruitment efforts will benefit from serous, reliable research, and that there is nothing more useful than a good theory:

> An understanding of why . . . students participate would facilitate the growth of theory . . . to explain participation, . . . and enhance efforts to increase the quantity and quality of learning experiences for adults. (Boshier, 1971, p.3)

Problems like PAE, then, appear to begin as practical questions which practitioners raise, and it is up to researchers to find answers that practitioners can use. If researchers

need to invoke the name of theory in this effort, well and good, as long as it can be related back to the coalface, where all true practitioners stand. The relationship implied here is mostly one-way, from practice to research, possibly to theory, and then quickly back to practice. Implied in this line of progress is the notion that it is up to researchers to make a case for their research activity to practitioners.

If we look at the history of PAE research, however, we will see that both the practical and theoretical enter the main stage more or less at the same time, that neither has precedence over the other, and both have different roles to play in advancing practice.

First, PAE is a historical problem of recent origin, and not an abiding one central to the nature of adult education, as it tends to be defined. It does not exist in a society or stage of society where few if any participate, nor does it exist, correspondingly, where most participate. While the issue of a "norm" for PAE is not settled (Queen, 1940), i.e., what constitutes 'enough' participation, it is only fair to speak of a real 'practical' problem when it appears that the barriers to equal access have been lifted and yet not all avail of the opportunity. The problem of equal acccess in the post-secondary realm, and the related problem of forced or mandatory participation, are all problems on which we can hang historical dates. PAE then as a practical problem has changed and will continue to change irrespective of researchers and their findings. Nor, despite the enormous outpouring of findings, their consistency and durability (see, for example, the link between formal schooling and later PAE, as discussed in Brunner, 1959; Johnstone and River, 1965; Anderson and Darkenwald, 1979), has there been any clear evidence of how research in the non-paradigmatic mode has actually benefitted practice.

Second, most interpretations of PAE in the paradigmatic mode, are psychological in nature. This means that in general explanations of the phenomenon derive their validity from an analysis of the individual's personality, motivation, and decision-making power. From this epistemological framework flows a set of practices which though undetermined in specific ways by specific theories nevertheless reflects the political assumptions embodied by that framework.

And yet, the concept of participation comes to adult education via sociology, where it has a pedigree which reaches back to the late 1800s, and means the involvement of the individual in the organized life of the community; covering such phenomena as voluntary associations, friendship patterns, and leisure interests. (Henderson, 1895; Edwards and Booth, 1973). Thus, while appearing the natural and evolutionary heir to earlier research, the psychological approach to participation signifies a historical--and thus accidental--choice among other possible choices in the interpretation of why adults involve themselves in forms of organized learning.

The popularity of the psychological paradigm represents, in my view, the influence of the current ideology of practice which 'prefers' a psychological model of the adult learner to a sociological model. Historically, in other words, the triumph of the psychological over the sociological paradigm represents the triumph of practice over theory, rather than the ability of good theory to influence practice.

Which comes first, then, the practical or the theoretical? And which is more appropriate to the field of adult education, as we have defined it: paradigmatic or non-paradigmatic research? My answer to this, and one that I would like to have the opportunity of defending before a gathering such as this, is both. The theoretical/paradigmatic motive in PAE research is as natural as the more practice-oriented/non-paradigmatic motive. It is just as legitimate to pursue the problem of PAE with a purist, intellectual, problem-solving bias as it is to conduct only that research which must contain a pay-off for the practitioner, be she teacher or administrator. Moreover, it could be argued, though this may be controversial, that as long as adult education as a field of study is housed within the university, the community at large has a right to expect that it will produce theory of high calibre, and especially that which appears to have no practical payoff whatsoever.

In conclusion, there is not a straight-forward relationship between research and practice. The example of PAE research reminds us that, first, we must be prepared to acknowledge the side-by-side existence of different research modes; second, we must realize that each category carries different implications for practice; and third, that theoretical research obeys only the rules of theory-building and does not need to have a connection with practice to justify its existence, its creativity depending only on a critical mass of researchers engaged on a similar set of problems. (Courtney, 1986)

In both cases, I defend the 'right' of researchers to conduct research with a free hand. They may choose to pursue a problem of great practical significance--they may even be hired for just that task, and may be asked to spell out the implications of their findings for practice. On the other hand, they may go the theoretical route and be blessed by God. To return to the Parcourse analogy, however, if non-paradigmatic research appears to have no effect on practice, on the assumption that it has been well carried out, it is not because the research is irrelevant to practice, it is rather that (1) the will and/or resources are lacking to carry out the implications of the findings, or (2) those to whom might fall this lot are unable to comprehend its implications. It should not be expected that the researchers themselves must be expected to spell out those implications.

(Reference page available from author.)

FACTORS AFFECTING DISPLACED WORKERS' PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

Gary J. Dean

Graduate Research Associate

The National Center for Research in Vocational Education
The Ohio State University
1960 Kenny Road
Columbus, Ohio 43210

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to learn more about the factors affecting displaced workers' participation in JTPA and TRA funded education and training programs. Interviews were conducted with twenty-one male, blue collar displaced workers in southeastern Ohio. Both participants in training programs and nonparticipants were interviewed. Factors identified that differentiated between participants and nonparticipants were attitude toward being laid-off, preparation for the lay off, skill level, attitude toward education, learning history, and planning for the future. Factors that affected the decision making process of participants were motivation to participate, how areas of study and schools were selected, and the job-school decision. Also noted were the positive results of participation in the program for participants and barriers to participation for nonparticipants.

FACTORS AFFECTING DISPLACED WORKERS' PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

The purpose of this study was to learn more about the factors that are associated with the decision and the decision making process of displaced workers to participate in JTPA and TRA funded education and training programs. Previous studies of unemployment in general and displaced workers in particular have, for the most part, been broad brush studies focusing on the total unemployment experience of the subject. As a result it is known that not very many displaced workers participate in training programs, but all the factors affecting their participation are not known. This in-depth analysis of selected subjects in one setting is intended to promote a better understanding of these factors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Most of the literature on displaced workers focuses on the general impact of unemployment. A few studies were found which had direct relevance to displaced workers' participation in adult education programs.

From the studies of the general impact of unemployment the following factors were identified as having potential implications for displaced workers' participation in training programs: the stages of adaptation to job loss; effect of the job loss on self-esteem; flexibility of family structure; understanding of the reasons for the plant closure or the lay off; a sense of control over one's life; ability to break ties with the former job and develop new interests; desire to change careers; career aspirations; and participation in and success with previous adult education.

Some of the studies which focused specifically on the issues of displaced workers' participation in adult education indicate that participation is influenced by: support from family, peers, counselors, or informal support systems (Zahniser, Ashley, and Inks, 1985; Boggs and Buss, 1983); additional sources of income in the family (Clark and Nelson, 1983; Zahniser et al., 1985); lower skill level in their previous employment (Haber, Ferman, and Hudson, 1963; Clark et al., 1983; Boggs et al., 1983); better information regarding training programs and community resources (Clark et al., 1983; Zahniser et al., 1983); younger (Foltman, 1968; Boggs et al., 1983); previous interest in adult education (Boggs et al., 1983); and lack of likely prospects for reemployment (Clark et al., 1983).

METHODOLOGY

The site for the study was a major glassware manufacturer located in southeastern Ohio. In May, 1985 one of two production plants was closed which resulted in the lay off of more than 500 workers.

The focus of the study was limited to blue collar male workers with families to reflect the national distribution of displaced workers and to enable the study to be more focused. At the time of the interviews the subjects averaged 34.9 years old (from 25 to 50), had 12.2 years of education (from 9 to 15), had a family size of 3.95 (from 1 to 7), and had been employed at the plant 12.2 years (from 5 to 31).

The primary method of data collection was semi-structured interviews. Twenty-one interviews were conducted in addition to four practice interviews. There were 10 were participants in the JTPA and TRA funded

education and training programs, 10 were nonparticipants, and 1 was a participant who had dropped out of school.

Data analysis consisted of reviewing the transcripts of the interviews to identify common themes. The themes were subsequently organized into the categories of work, education, family, and miscellaneous. Within each theme the subjects responded with a range of attitudes, feelings, or positions. These ranges were used to identify which themes differentiated among and between participants and nonparticipants.

RESULTS

Of the more than 50 different themes identified in the data analysis, only those most relevant will be reported. The results are organized into four categories: themes that did not differentiate between participants and nonparticipants, themes that do differentiate between participants and nonparticipants, themes that differentiate among participants, and themes that are relevant to the nonparticipants.

Nondifferentiating Themes

A number of basic demographic characteristics did not appear to be related in any systematic way to participation in the training programs: age, number of years employed at the company, size of family, and number of years of education.

The work themes which were not related to the decision to participate in the programs are the patterns of work of the subjects, reasons why the subjects started to work at the company, attitudes regarding the work and working conditions, and attitudes about remaining with the company. Most of the subjects had not planned to leave their jobs with the company and believed they would retire from there.

All subjects experienced some negative economic effects. Half of the subjects admitted to major financial difficulties and all of the others indicated at least some degree of financial strain.

Several educational themes emerged which did not differentiate between participants and nonparticipants: attitudes about their high school experiences, plans for work or more education after high school, feelings of regret over not having done more in high school, and enrollment in some type of formal post secondary adult education program.

Participant-Nonparticipant Differences

A number of factors were identified which could be associated with the decision to enroll in the education and training programs. The level of skill of the subjects' primary job at the plant was associated with participation. The majority of participants were skilled with only a few occupying semi-skilled or unskilled jobs. The majority of nonparticipants were unskilled. Another pattern developed regarding the subjects' beliefs about losing their jobs and their preparation for it. Nonparticipants tended to believe that the plant would not shut down or that if it did it would not affect their jobs. Those subjects made no preparation for the lay off. While some participants were in the above group, there were more who believed they would lose their jobs and made some sort of financial, family, or educational preparation. Another aspect of the lay-off was the attitude about the experience exhibited by the subjects.

Participants made more positive comments regarding the impact of the lay off on themselves and their families than nonparticipants. Positive effects on the family included being able to spend more time with the family and the family being closer together. While some nonparticipants also noted positive family effects, more noted negative effects such as the impact of reduced income, increased arguments, weakened relationships, and divorce.

Several educational factors were associated with participation. Participants made more positive comments regarding education in general and the JTPA and TRA training programs. For the participants there was a general feeling of hope and encouragement regarding participation in the training programs. While some nonparticipants exhibited positive attitudes regarding education and the training programs many did not. Several subjects, mostly participants, had engaged in significant, self-initiated learning projects. These included auto body repair, photography, landscaping, building a home computer, learning to run a business, and insurance. All of these self-initiated learning activities were related to courses taken in the training programs or self-employment opportunities of the subjects. Although both participants and nonparticipants enrolled in formal adult education programs, the participants tended to have a more consistent pattern of learning since high school. Although nonparticipants had been in adult education programs their participation tended to be more sporadic and intermittent.

A number of themes emerged regarding the subjects' planning and preparation for the future. Four levels of planning were found: 1) never thought about the future; 2) thought about the future but did not plan for it; 3) only thoughts about the future were to get a decent job with security; and 4) evidence of what Levinson (1978) referred to as a "dream." All nonparticipants were at levels 1, 2, and 3. Participants were divided between levels 3 and 4. Five subjects, all participants, gave evidence of having formed a dream in their life.

Program Participant Themes

The program participants were enrolled in several different types of programs: two-year community and technical colleges, for accounting, electronics, ceramic engineering; and heating and air conditioning technology; joint vocational schools for auto body, electricity, and carpentry; proprietary school for travel and tourism; and a special pilot program for entrepeneurship training.

Several themes emerged regarding the process of decision making of the participants: motivation to participate, selection of an area of study and school, and the job-school decision. Three primary motivations to participate in training were noted: program benefits as the primary source of motivation; school as the best option given the lack of jobs; and had always wanted to go to school and saw this as the opportunity. Four patterns regarding the selection of a field of study and school were observed: undecided, decision influenced primarily by friends and relatives; undecided, selection made with minimal research from available openings; undecided, did substantial amount of research; and the decision based on long term interests or previous attendance at the school. Five patterns regarding the school-job decision were found: wanted and looked for a job first, decided on school when no job could be found; enrolled in school and kept their job at the company in order to be safe; school was first priority but looked for a job out of sense of duty; school was first priority, did not look for a job.

The factors noted above interacted to form several patterns. Participants

who had always wanted to go to school and saw the program as their opportunity tended to have made decisions about their areas of study and school based on long term interests and prior attendance at the institution. Participants attending primarily for program benefits tended to be undecided about their areas of study and schools and made their decisions under the influence of others and with little research.

Participation in the programs affected the subjects in a number of ways. Some of the positive results of participating were increased self confidence, positive impact on their children's education, more time with the family, improved family relations, increased respect for education, developed interest in educational subjects previously disliked, increased desire for more education in the future, provided hope and structure in the subject's life in the absence of work, and provided inspiration for the future. Some of the participants also noted difficulties in returning to school: lack of information about schools, courses, programs of study, and rules of the institution; lack of preparation for academic subjects; lack of self-confidence; lack of study skills; lack of knowledge of behavior patterns expected in school; feelings of being lost or overwhelmed at first; lack of satisfaction with course content or methods of teaching; fear of taking tests; less time with the family; and home, family, and money problems interfering with school.

The participants desired three types of working situations upon completion of their programs: a steady job with decent pay; to work for someone else and eventually open their own business; or to go straight into their own business. They also exhibited three levels of labor market knowledge and analysis regarding their future occupations: superficial or no knowledge based on casual observation of the community and the economy and the advice of friends and relatives; moderate knowledge based on newspaper ads, employment bureau listings, slight work experience in the field, or school placement officials; and in-depth knowledge based on research of labor market trends and extensive knowledge of the field, the community, and the economy. Participants whose motivation to participate was based on long term interest in school tended to have an in-depth knowledge of the labor market. Several of them had made specific plans to start their own businesses.

Nonparticipant Themes

The nonparticipants were unemployed; employed part time at the company on call; self employed; or employed at new jobs. Most of the nonparticipants had inquired about the training programs at some point and had either decided not to attend school or had not yet decided.

Reasons for not attending and barriers to participation cited by the nonparticipants are: lack of skills necessary to take advantage of vocational programs; lack of academic ability; lack of confidence to do well in school; lack of confidence in the program funding; fear of severing ties with the company; afraid to give up employment (even when part-time on call); fear of losing seniority, insurance, retirement, or other benefits; can not afford to attend school even with stipend; lack of confidence that training will result in a job; pay too low for graduates of the training programs (compared to the wages at the plant); belief that the certificates or degrees offered by the institutions are not marketable; inability to work out transportation or other logistical problems; could not find programs of interest; desire for work not school; and the belief that a job could be found.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Most demographic and work related themes were not associated with decisions to enroll in training programs. Education themes regarding high school, after high school plans, and incidence of participation in adult education were not related to the decision to participate. Participants possess a wide variety of work and educational backgrounds that are not characterized by set patterns.
2. Factors discriminating between participants and nonparticipants had to do with attitudes towards the lay off, education, and the program; planning for the future; and a consistent leaning history. These factors indicate that the primary differences are attitudinal and motivational. A positive outlook and a sense of planning were highly associated with participation.
3. Participants have a variety of motives to attend school, have varying degrees labor market knowledge, and exert varying degrees of personal effort in their decision making process. High levels of personal activity and effort in decisions about school are associated with long term interest in school and a consistent learning history.
4. Participation generally resulted in positive effects for the participants regarding their attitudes toward education in general, themselves, their families, and their future.
5 The primary barriers to participation are economic, the perceived lack of preparation for school, lack of confidence in the programs to yield positive results, and lack of desire for training.

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THE TACIT DIMENSION OF PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE AND THE UTILIZATION OF RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION

John M. Dirkx
Education Specialist
School of Health Sciences
Michael Reese Hospital and Medical Center
Lake Shore Drive at 31st Street
Chicago, IL 60616

ABSTRACT

The incorporation of new information into one's day-to-day practice is a complex and poorly understood process. It is not at all clear what or how adult education practitioners learn from research in the field, or in what ways their practices change as a result of learning new information. A conscientious practitioner who seeks to improve his or her practice through the study of research findings quickly discovers the difficulty of directly applying findings to practice problems. Because of this difficulty practice often seems to go on in spite of problematic research findings. The purpose of this paper is to argue that the difficulty of relating research findings to practice is, in part, due to the tacit nature of knowledge used in practice. What is meant by tacit knowing, its relationship to learning, its limiting qualities, and how it may be shaped or changed through research findings are discussed. The paper also focuses on a way of overcoming the limiting qualities of tacit knowing in practice.

The Tacit Dimension of Practical Knowledge and the Utilization of Research in Adult Education

John M. Dirkx
School of Health Sciences
Michael Reese Hospital and Medical Center

Most, if not all doctoral dissertations and many published empirical studies in adult education contain an obligatory section on the implications of the study's findings for practice in the field. Quite frequently this is the weakest section of the work, often with a kind of "afterthoughtness" to it. One could argue that this sorry state of affairs is due to a lack of intelligence or creativity by the authors, or, more gently, a kind of benign neglect of the whole question. However, I would like to pose an alternative explanation. The relationship of theory and research to the workaday world of the practitioner is complex and poorly understood by either researchers or practitioners. Even if we had just completed the most rigorous of applied studies my guess is our writing of the implications section would still be a struggle and leave us feeling somewhat empty.

In this paper I will focus on one aspect of the relationship of research to practice - the notion of practical knowledge. The perspective of my argument will be primarily from that of the practitioner, in that I will be examining the nature of the knowledge that guides occupational practices. By so doing I will suggest that there often is a basic incongruity between the type of knowledge represented in research findings and the type of knowlege practitioners use to guide their practices. I have discussed elsewhere (Dirkx, 1983) the incongruities between conceptions of knowledge reflected in professional education practices and the nature of field-based or clinical experiences. In this paper I will argue that practical knowledge has a fundamentally tacit and personal dimension . This dimension severely circumscribes a technical, rational and objective application of research findings to practice implied in some writings in the field of adult education.

Practical Knowledge versus Academic Knowledge

The practice of any given occupation is guided by some body of knowledge. Some practices claim to base this knowledge on scientific research while others rely on tradition or trial and error. I am concerned primarily with those practices which espouse or seek a scientific basis to their practices. Practitioners rely more or less on this knowledge to perform the tasks and responsibilities of their practices. We can distinguish the knowledge that individuals use in practice - occupational practical knowledge - from the knowledge they may possess but do not use in practice - academic knowledge (Wagner and Sternberg 1985). Practical knowledge is characterized by being directed towards the performance of some procedure. Second, it is knowledge which is relevant to the workaday concerns of the practitioner. In this sense knowledge of a procedure that is not relevant to one's occupational practice is

academic rather than practical knowledge.

For example, while I am teaching a group of adult learners in human relations I may remember an article that I read earlier in the day that found the educational background of group members to be related to their level of cognitive functioning. However, I find this information to be neither relevant nor useful in the immediate context of my practice. Therefore, it would not be considered an aspect of my practical knowledge. I <u>am</u> aware that the group members are sitting in a particular configuration, and I know, from prior experience and the literature, that this particular arrangement will adversely influence interaction among members. Because one of my goals as a group facilitator is to promote interaction, this knowledge will influence what I do within the first few minutes of the group meeting. It is clearly knowledge that is directed to procedures and is relevant to my practice concens. It is, therefore, practical knowledge. Thus, it is obvious that some of what I know in the course of my practice cannot be considered practical knowledge as it is defined here, despite its apparent relationship to my practice.

Occupations vary considerably on the rules by which they decide what constitutes improper practice (Dioroi, 1982). In some fields, such as carpentry, the results of practice are readily and publicly verifiable. Thus, much of the practical knowledge which characterizes carptentry is accessible and capable of being taught (Wagner and Sternberg, 1985). However, in other fields, such as teaching, deviations from acceptable performance are not as easily recognized. This is, in part, due to a lack of agreement among the community of practitioners as to what does and what does not constitute competent practice. There is less certainty in these areas as to what makes up the core body of knowledge basic to the practice. Practitioners in these fields recognize the importance of individual judgement and decisions in performing their tasks.

Some writers have interpreted the lack of an explicit and agreed upon body of knowledge as indicative of an immature scientific basis for the field (Broudy, 1955) or simply a lack of knowledge (Dioroi, 1982). According to this view, as research techniques and studies become more rigorous we can expect an increase in the explicit knowledge base upon which these practices are based. Areas such as medicine and engineering are cited as examples of practical fields that are rapidly developing a solid scientific basis for their practices. On the other hand, teaching is said to be struggling in its attempt to base practice on some form of scientific foundation.

Research, then, is viewed as a key factor in improving practice by expanding the explicit body of knowledge upon which practice is based. The problem is that this relationship is often characterized as technical, objective and rational. However, this view fails to take into consideration a fundamental attribute of practical knowledge, that it is inherently personal in nature and constituted by a tacit way of knowing (Polanyi, 1962, 1967; Schon, 1983). In the following section I will discuss the tacit aspect of the knowledge that guides occupational practice.

The Tacit Dimension of Practical Knowledge

The main premise of this section is that all practical knowledge is constituted by a tacit dimension and that this knowledge plays a significant role in guiding practice in adult education and other fields as well. However, this knowledge is not readily accessible or is poorly articulated, if at all.

The phrase "tacit knowing" comes originally from the work of Michael Polanyi (1962, 1967). In his analysis of the concept of skill Polanyi (1962) aulludes to the role of tacit knowledge in guiding skillful performance. According to Polanyi competent performance is "achieved by the observance of a set of rules which are not known as such to the person following them" (p. 49) (my underline). Using the examples of swimming and bicycling he clearly demonstrates the difference between rules of an art and the practice of an art. Rules may guide an art only if they are "integrated into the practical knowledge of the art" (p.50).

For purposes of discussion, then, tacit knowledge is defined here as "knowledge that cannot be openly expressed or stated (Wagner and Sternberg, 1985). It is knowledge that is used in the performance of procedures but is ineffable, not directly accessible, or poorly articulated. Even the practitioner is not aware of its role in his or her practice.

In an analysis of professional practitioners Schon (1983) argues that the workaday life of the professional reflects what he calls "tacit knowing-in-action." This refers to the ability of competent practitioners to recognize phenomena in the course of their doing for which they are unable to give complete or accurate descriptions. In practice decisions and judgements are made continuously for which adequate criteria cannot be provided by the practitioner. Skills are performed but the rules and procedures guiding them cannot be articulated. Similar analyses of tacit knowledge have been made of social interactions (Schuz, 1962) and our recognition of movements and gestures (Birdwhistell, 1970). Other empirical investigations of knowing within the lives of practitioners (Wagner and Sternberg, 1985) and studies of the differences between novice and expert practitioners have also clearly demonstrated the role of tacit knowledge in practice.

To illustrate the tacit dimension of practical knowledge I would like to return to an earlier example of the group facilitator. After a workshop for a group of health practitioners one of them may come up to me and say, "You know I really enjoyed this experience. At first I thought it was going to be be a waste of time, because of all the different opinions and conflicting attitudes in our group. The fact you could pull this off is a real statement of your skills as a group facilitator."

While everyone likes to hear compliments comments such as this one give reflective practitioners pause. What skills is she referring to? I don't feel like I have any special skills. What was it that I did that convinced this person that I was a skillful practitioner? To answer these questions I can cite some general behaviors to which she might be refering. For example, maybe she means that I listened and was in no hurry to give the group direction. Or perhaps it is the nonjudgemental

way in which I intervened. It could be the gentle but firm way that I reminded the group that they seemed to be straying form their real concerns. These might be identified as skills used in the course of leading the workshop.

However, while I was engaged in facilitating the group I was not consciously aware of deciding to do one thing or the other, of using or applying particular skills. This awareness comes to me only if I reflect on my practice. I was aware only of attempting to understand what was going on in the group. This I was using as a rule to guide my practice. Another rule might be that I should intervene if the group looks like it is going off course. These rules are part of my practical knowlege, but they are an explicit part. What I decide to do in specific situations depends on my tacit and personal understanding of the particular situation at the time, and what I have learned but "forgotten" about what works and what doesn't work from past similar experiences (Schon, 1983). With some effort I may be able to decribe my particular behaviors in the group, but it is unlikely that I will be able to provide an adequate explanation for why I did what I did. But what I did seemed to work!

Now let us consider briefly the converse of this situation. What if the group had gone badly and the workshop was a miserable failure by everyone's standards, including my own? Is this do to a lack of practical knowledge on my part? Is there something that I should have done but didn't do? On what basis can I decide what to do differently in the future if a similar situation occurs? Because neither I nor my students are certain of what it is that produced these disastrous results we are in a difficult position to decide what to learn new before the next workshop comes along. Furthermore, I am not certain of what it is I do when the group goes well. If I cannot specifically relate what it is that I do to what is learned in the group it will be difficult for me seek out research or theory for answers or solutions to my dilemma.

From the philosophical and empirical investigations of knowing within the day to day lives of practitioner we have begun to appreciate that practical knowledge consists not only of a kind of explicit and objective knowedge of one's practice. There is also an important tacit dimension to practical knowledge which reflects an integration of the explicit knowledge into the personal constructions and performances of one's work. Furthermore this research is beginning to reveal the key role that tacit knowing plays in mediating what new knowledge we acquire and how it is acquired. In the final section of this paper I will explore the relationship of tacit knowing to the application and utilization of research findings in occupational practice.

Implications for Practice

This section is titled as a kind of "tongue in cheek," because this entire article represents an attempt to address this question, albeit in a somewhat more abstract manner than is typical of most research reports. However, the notion of tacit practical knowledge poses some concrete implications for thinking about and utilizing researach findings.

First, research studies cannot be judged primarily on the basis of technical relevance or applicability to practice. Technical and rational applications of research findings to practice imply that the problems of practice are technical and rational. However, as we have seen it is not often possible to provide a rational, objective statement of one's practice problem.

Practitioners need to develop alternative ways of identifying and utilizing research studies and theories for purposes of improving their work. Focusing on the technical and rational relevance of studies will result in uncreative and sometimes inappropriate application of research. Improvements may come from studying basic as well as applied research findings, and work not directly related to one's immediate practice concerns. For example I have worked with a psychiatrist who is well known for his work in group and family psychotherapy. In addition to the obviously relevant literature in his area, he also drew on a wide range of other works. In a post-session discussion of the meeting after one particular seession he drew upon the symbols and metaphors from Melville's Moby Dick as a means to help him better understand the behavior of his group.

Tacit practical knowledge also has implications for how practitioners make use of findings to improve practice. As the last illustration implies, recognition of problems and improvement in practice requires a reflective stance to one's work. The workaday world of most practitioners has little time devoted to thinking about what it is that one is doing. Such inattention to reflectivity tends to foster reliance on knowing-in-action as the form of knowing exercised in pratice. This brings about a solidification of perspectives, habits and attitudes which inhibits creativity and stifles new ways of doing things (Schon, 1983).

Reflection in practice can take at least two forms. In one sense it can be a reflecting on one's practice from a distance. Time is given over at some point after an activity to reflect on the process and the kinds of problems encountered. This form of "reflection-in-action is illustrated by reflective oriented seminars in teacher education (Zeichner, 1981) and Balint group seminars on doctor-patient relationships in physician training (Gustafson, 1978). Reflection in practice can also take the form of a brief "time-out" while engaged in a practice. These can be short periods of time, for example, during which a group facilitator might step back away from the group and the leadership role in an attempt to get a new or different perspective on what might be happening in the group.

During periods of reflection practitioners are given the opportunity to look at their practice problems, how they have framed the problems and alternative ways of interpreting them. In this process they will make use of whatever experience has brought them and of which they are aware of at the time. Thus, it follows that the richer the practitioner's experience the more creative and potentially meaningful will be the solution. This implies that practitioners should immerse thmselves in the literature of their field, as well as other fields to which they feel themselves drawn. This is perhaps the most productive way that practitioners can make use of research findings.

(Reference page available from author.)

SIDDHARTHA'S SPIRITUAL ODYSSEY: AN ANALYSIS OF HERMAN HESSE'S SIDDHARTHA

BASED ON FOWLER'S STAGES OF FAITH DEVELOPMENT

Trenton R. Ferro, Northern Illinois University
2306 Grant Ave.
Rockford, IL 61103

ABSTRACT:

In Siddhartha Herman Hesse presents one man's search for meaning and purpose in life. As this investigator read this novel, he was struck by the possible similarities between the various stages of the main character's spiritual quest and those proposed by James Fowler as denoting the various levels of faith development. This study was undertaken to see if, in fact, Siddhartha could serve as an illustrative model of Fowler's proposed taxonomy. The methodology used was a literary analysis of Siddhartha to distinguish the steps or stages of the main character's spiritual quest and internal development as presented by the author. These levels of growlth were then compared to the faith stages proposed by James Fowler to see if Siddhartha's development illustrates and exemplifies Fowler's theory. The subsequent analysis and comparison did prove to be positive; there is a remarkable correlation between Siddhartha's spiritual growth and Fowler's proposed stages of faith development. The conference presentation itself will consist of: 1) a presentation of Fowler's Stages of Faith Development, 2) a description of Siddhartha's spiritual odyssey and how his growth pattern parallel's Fowler's theory, and 3) a word about the value of reading literature as a means of becoming better acquainted with adult development.

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In Siddhartha Herman Hesse presents one man's search for meaning and purpose in life. As this investigator read this novel, he was struck by the possible similarities between the various stages of the main character's spiritual quest and those proposed by James Fowler as denoting the various levels of faith development. This study was undertaken to see if, in fact, Siddhartha could serve as an illustrative model of Fowler's proposed taxonomy. Following an outline presentation of Fowler's proposed stages of faith development, a description of Siddhartha's spiritual odyssey will be given. This growth pattern will be compared with Fowler's theory to determine how closely it does or does not parallel his proposal. Finally, there will be a brief discussion regarding the value of reading literature as a means of becoming better acquainted with adult development.

Fowler's Stages of Faith Development

A recent addition to the study of human development has been the investigation of the stages of faith conducted by James Fowler. The results of his work have been presented in book form (Fowler, 1981) and interview (Fowler, 1983) and have served as the basis of a major research project in adult development (Bruning and Stokes, 1982). Based on the work of Jean Piaget, Erik Erikson, and Lawrence Kohlberg, Fowler's research has delineated a sequence of stages through which a person might pass on his/her faith journey. While sequential and irreversible (much like Kohlberg's theory of moral development), they are not like a flowing stream. Rather, they are like a series of pools and dams. One might stay at one pool for a great length of time (Fowler, 1983). In fact, one may never progress beyond a stage reached as a child, adolescent, or young adult.

Although Fowler is a Christian and often speaks of faith in terms of attitude toward, and relationship with, the Triune God, his theory can apply to any religious system as well as to atheists and agnostics. Ultimately, faith describes that which has the greatest meaning or highest value in one's life; it is the apprehension of the universal, of that which is of ultimate concern (Fowler, 1981). This might be one's career, a moral principle, a social value, another person, or oneself. Every person has faith and, hence, is at some faith stage. Although a person may not progress beyond a certain stage throughout his/her life, there are age levels before which s/he cannot normally proceed to the next stage.

The stages which Fowler has developed are as follows:

Undifferentiated Faith (infancy)--blind trust in parents and others in the home.

1. Intuitive-Projective Faith (up to about age 6)--the child adopts the parents' faith uncritically.

2. Mythic-Literal Faith (childhood and beyond)--the child becomes aware of, and to some extent internalizes, other systems and centers of faith, but s/he still adheres to that of his/her parents, family, and inherited religious tradition.

3. Synthetic-Conventional Faith (adolescence and beyond)--the adolescent becomes influenced by the peer group; his/her system is adjusted so that s/he will be accepted and can belong. The emphasis is on the "norm" to which one adheres; hence, this is the stage at which many adults remain who have strong attachment to a congregation, synagogue, or other religious organization.

4. Individuative-Reflective Faith (young adult and beyond)--the person begins to question and have doubts; s/he begins to form beliefs independent of his/her background.

5. Conjunctive Faith (mid-life and beyond)--the adult who reaches this stage begins to reconcile the several influences and aspects of his/her experience and to integrate these into a meaningful whole. Such a person recognizes that any belief system is less than the universal it tries to describe and define and that one's faith can benefit from the contributions offered by other belief perspectives.

6. Universalizing Faith (mid-life and beyond)--For the person who attains this stage which is achieved by very few all of life becomes whole and has meaning; one's ego and self-interest, present even at Stage 5, is subordinated to this greater whole. Fowler (1981) cites Gandhi, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Mother Teresa as examples of this level of faith development, although persons can attain this stage without receiving such publicity; they may be relatively unknown.

Siddhartha's Spiritual Odyssey

Only the briefest summary can be presented here of Herman Hesse's great novel. In the process of highlighting Siddhartha's search for truth, for meaning, for purpose in life, the art of Hesse's storytelling will be lost. Hopefully the purpose and consequence of his literary efforts will not be as meaning and understanding are sought through an investigation of the hero's life and searchings.

In his adolescence and approaching manhood Siddhartha is the delight of the Brahmin caste, the epitome of every father and mother's dream, the desire of every young lady's heart. He has mastered the ways of the Brahmins and the

way of his father, practicing Hinduism as it was meant to be practiced and becoming knowledgeable in the Hindu scriptures. He is not happy, however. He seeks something that is not present in the way of his father. Therefore, becoming acquainted with wandering ascetics called Samanas, he follows them and seeks meaning and understanding--rather, loss of self--in the way of the Samanas. He seeks to avoid the world, to subdue his body. Here is a world view that is dualistic; release of self and the soul is sought in total subjugation of the body. After a time Siddhartha realizes the futility of this approach as well. To seek release of self by totally denying self is a self-serving activity. He recognizes that the acquisition of knowledge and the teachings of others will not help. Yet he does investigate the way of Gotoma. This is a period of transition for Siddhartha. While impressed with Gotoma's demeanor which exudes peace, truth, and love, he is not persuaded by Gotoma's teaching. The Buddha teaches that all is one, yet one needs salvation. It is necessary to escape the one to achieve the one. What Siddhartha seeks is the experience, the awakening, which Gotoma has undergone and which cannot be communicated in his teaching.

As he leaves Gotoma--and his lifelong friend who has remained with the yellow-robed monks--Siddhartha is lost in thought. As he reviews his search up to this point he experiences that Awakening he has sought. Instead of finding meaning and purpose by losing self, one finds self in self. One cannot escape himself; rather, he must come to know himself--and the world in which this self lives. The world, too, is reality, including the world of the senses. With this discovery Siddhartha sets off to become educated in the way(s) of the world--the way of love, the way of business, the way of social interaction. After many years he discovers, however, that this way, too, has its pitfalls. Although the world of the senses is also reality, one cannot be captured by sensuality. To do so is again the loss of self. Yet this is what happens to Siddhartha. When he comes to the realization that he has succumbed to this temptation, he leaves all behind and strikes out again in his quest for ultimate meaning.

His discovery of the meaninglessness which had gradually crept into his existence left him nauseated. His life had become satiated to death, and now he desires to die. Hungry and tired, he reaches the river which he has crossed many years previously after his Awakening. Here he once again hears the sound of the Om, the beginning and end of all Brahmin prayers. Uttering Om he falls asleep. When he awakens, he is a new self. He recognizes that he <u>is</u> a rich man. He is like a child again. Fresh and eager, he seeks a new beginning. Yet he is a child who <u>knows</u>--not with the knowledge acquired from others, but with the knowledge that comes only with much experience and introspection. Finally, in this death of self he discovers a new love, the river, where he now takes up his final abode. Why the river? It flows, it is eternal, yet it is everchanging. Becoming a ferryman, he learns how to listen to the river, to fathom its depth and timelessness. He hears many voices, and yet they are all one voice, the voice of Om. There is peace. Finally he has become one with all people.

A comparison of Siddhartha's faith journey with Fowler's stages of faith development reveals some remarkable parallels. Since we meet Siddhartha as a lad already in his teens (or so the context seems to indicate), we have no description of his childhood faith experience. Here there is no parallel to

Fowler. We see traces of this stage as we meet Siddhartha, but he shows that he has, along with mastering the practice of his religious tradition, started to question. He is not satisfied. He seeks deeper meaning and understanding. He has not rejected the faith of his fathers. He seeks to expand its meaning and depth for him. This is similar to Stage 2 faith development.

His attachment to the Samanas seems to move him along the way to Stage 3 development. Here he practices forms which have been established by others. Even the leader's anger with Siddhartha when the latter expresses his intent to leave illustrates the pressure to conform. However, Siddhartha, unlike many of his day as well as many adults today, finds the way of the Samanas insufficient. He cannot lead a life of religious conformity. He must seek further. He experiences a period of transition in which he is introduced to the way of Gotoma. While he is enchanted with the peace, the equanimity, which exudes from the person of the Buddha, he sees in the teachings of Gotoma the same shortcoming--it is still a way of conformity. He needs something more.

This questioning and doubting fits well with Fowler's Stage 4. Out of his ruminations comes a new awareness, an awakening. He begins to form and practice a new way of life independent of his background. He discovers that one cannot divorce self from self, that self must also be experienced both in itself and in the context of the world around him. Yet this, too, runs its course, especially when he recognizes that there are also pitfalls to this type of knowing. As he learns that self can also be lost to sensuality, he experiences another transition. His desire is to die, to put behind himself not only the life of the world but life itself.

Siddhartha, as a result of this second transition, experiences a second awakening. He experiences life anew, but this is also a life of one who knows. At the same time as he is integrating his past experiences into this new way of being and becoming, he still senses that something is lacking, something that is possessed by the ferryman with whom he has taken up lodging and life. As time pases he, too, comes to know the river, its flow, and its timelessness. Finally he, too, becomes one with all people. He experiences the universalization of his faith. He has found that for which he has sought. Although not clearly distinguished, Stages 5 and 6 can be seen here as Siddhartha experiences first the integration and then the transcendence of his life/faith journey.

Conclusion

At the risk of introducing a circular argument, a couple of observations can be made. Although Siddhartha was certainly written without any awareness of Fowler's (or Kohlberg's or Piaget's) research, this novel does indicate that "art imitates life." The best in art allows us, sometimes forces us, to hold up our persons, our ideologies, and our institutions for closer scrutiny. Similar findings to those outlined in this paper might well be found in other literary works. At the same time, there is no evidence that Fowler had this novel in mind when he was carrying out his research and developing the theory presented here. Therefore, the findings of this brief investigation help underscore the general validity of Fowler's investigations and generalizations.

TABLE 1: Parallels Noted Between Fowler's Stages and Siddhartha's Spiritual Development

Fowler's Stages	Siddhartha's Development
1. Intuitive-Projective Faith	
2. Mythic-Literal Faith	The way of his father and the Brahmins
3. Synthetic-Conventional Faith	The way of the Samanas
	Transition--The way of Gotoma
4. Individuative-Reflective Faith	The first Awakening: The way of the world and the senses
	Transition--The recognition of self lost to sensuality
5. Conjunctive Faith	The second Awakening: New life for one who knows
6. Universalizing Faith	The way of the River--one with people

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The Relationship between Anomia, Life Satisfaction and Education-Related Variables among Older Adults

James C. Fisher
Assistant Professor of Adult Education
University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee
Box 413
Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201

ABSTRACT

An examination of the relationship between the attitudes of two populations of older adults and their participation in education-related activities reveals statistically significant associations among Anomia, Life Satisfaction, and Participation in Educational Activities, Topics for Future Learning, and Self-Directed Learning Participation. These findings reinforce the need for a strong social dimension in education-related activities and call for an awareness on the part of practitioners that non-participation may be an expression of alienation or powerlessness.

The Relationship between Anomia, Life Satisfaction and Education-Related Variables among Older Adults

James C. Fisher
University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee

Abstract. An examination of the relationship between the attitudes of two populations of older adults and their participation in education-related activities reveals statistically significant associations among Anomia, Life Satisfaction, and Participation in Educational Activities, Topics for Future Learning, and Self-Directed Learning Participation.

Problem. This study focuses on the relationship between attitudes of older adults regarding their sense of satisfaction with the self and its environment and their propensity to participate in education-related activities. Researchers have attested to the use of such sociological variables as age, level of educational attainment, and income as important predictors of participation in educational activities by older adults. But what of the relationship between the attitude of the older adult to him/herself, toward the past, and toward the social environment, and participation in educational activities?

In order to probe the subjects' attitudes toward themselves and their reaction to the potential within a range of experiences, levels of anomia and life satisfaction were assessed. Anomia gauges a person's perception of "self-to-others" distance expressed as the alienation or powerlessness of the individual or the normlessness or unreliability of the environment. The Srole (1956) Scale defines anomia in terms of alienation from civic leaders, the unreliability of the social order and human relationships, and a loss of personal and social attainment and internalized norms and values.

Life Satisfaction describes a person's perception of self in older adulthood by providing insight into the person's level of affirmation of earlier life experiences and degree of satisfaction or success in the older adult role. This general index is divided into four subscales: Mood Tone, a measure of happiness, pleasure, and affect toward people; Zest, a measure of enthusiasm and ego-involvement; Congruence, a measure of the extent to which goals have been in achieved in life; and Resolution, a measure of the extent to which a person affirms life and accepts responsibility for it.

Literature. The word anomia was first used to described the absence of custom or commonly expected usage. Emile Durkheim found that in times of social change or unrest, "when traditional rules have lost their authority" (1951, p. 253), the rate of suicides increased. Finifter has since observed that the "social condition [of anomia] becomes manifest at the "individual level as uncertainty as to proper action and belief" (1972, p.

4). Examples of occasions likely to result in such uncertainty cited by Finifter are economic depression, sudden prosperity, death of a spouse, or divorce. The role transition between adulthood and older adulthood often involves retirement, relocation, loss of spouse, adaptation to a lower socio-ecnonomic status, and coupled with the physiological and psychological changes which accompany aging, provides a broad setting in which to foster anomia. The traditional roles may no longer exist, and the new roles are defined by confusion and uncertainty for many older adults.

According to the literature, a high level of anomia may inhibit either learning or participation of adults in education-related activities. Seeman and Evans (1962) confirmed a significant relationship between alienation and powerlessness and the retention of knowledge, indicating that learning is dependent upon an individual's established expectancy for control, i.e., upon the lack of powerlessness or alienation. Garry found a greater level of anomia among nonparticipants than among participants in adult education activities. Rose demonstrated that participation in adult basic education will produce a reduction in anomia scores (1971). Meier and Bell (1959) concluded that a higher level of anomia among older adults may indicate awareness of the impossibility of succeeding in attaining their life goals.

Life Satisfaction indices grew out of the efforts of Neugarten, Havighurst, and Tobin (1961) to develop an instrument to measure successful aging using the individual's own evaluation as the point of reference and concentrating on a number of components of the person's psychological well-being. Brockett identified a positive correlation between life satisfaction and self-directed learning readiness among older adults (1985). Wolfe (1963) found that happiness and good adjustment in the later years were significantly related to continued purposeful learning. Mizer concluded that older persons who are educationally active tend to have a greater zest for living, better self concept, and are more generally satisfied with their lives (1975).

Methodology In order to assess the relationship between anomia and life satisfaction and education-related activities, two populations were surveyed. In Population I, a survey instrument was used with 786 active older adults at 8 different gathering places for seniors. In order to control for age, sex, marital status, and socio-economic status, 211 participants were matched with 211 nonparticipants on the basis of those demographic variables (Fisher, 1986). In Population II, a structured interview format was used with 69 older adults at 3 different locations: senior centers, private homes and apartments, and a nursing home. In this group, subjects' lifestyles ranged from active and independent to dependent and requiring extended care.

Independent variables were Anomia, measured using the Srole Anomia Scale (1956), and Life Satisfaction, and the Mood Tone, Zest, Congruence, and Resolution subscales, measured using the Life Satisfaction Index A (Neugarten et al., 1961). Dependent variables were Participation in Educational Activities, Awareness of Sites where Educational Activities are Available, Awareness of Learning Needs, and Self-Directed Learning Participation. Participation in Educational Activities was measured according to subjects' response to the question, "List any classes, study groups, workshops, conferences, or other educational activities in which you have participated during the past year." Awareness of Sites where Educational Activities are Available was measured by the question, "Please list any places in the area where classes, study groups, workshops, conferences, or other educational

activities are open to you." Awareness of Learning Needs was probed with the question, "Is there anything in particular that you would like to know more about or would like to do better? Self-Directed Learning Participation (Fisher, 1979) was measured using a six-item scale which probed the propensity of subjects to engage in self-directed learning activity.

Data were analyzed using the Pearson product-moment correlation with variables using interval measures and Tau measure of association with variables using ordinal measures to assess the strength of association between any two variables.

Findings. Table 1 presents those associations found to be statistically significant at the .05 or .01 levels of probability. Associations in Population I are identified with the symbol "I," and associations in Population II are identified by a "II."

Table 1

Association between Anomia, Life Satisfaction, and Education-Related Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables			
	Participation in Educational Activities	Awareness of Sites where Educational Activities are Available	Awareness of Learning Needs	Self-Directed Learning Participation
Anomia	**I **II	**I		*II
Life Satisfaction				**I **II
Mood Tone				*I **II
Zest	*I *II			**I **II
Congruence				
Resolution				**I *II

I = Population I; II = Population II.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.

Despite the differences between the two populations, the first being somewhat younger and considerably more homogeneous than the second, the essential similarity in the overall pattern of relationships between the independent and dependent variables is apparent from Table 1. In Population I, Anomia is related at a statistically significant level to Participation in Educational Activities and Awareness of Sites where Educational Activities are Available; Life Satisfaction and Mood are related to Self-Directed Learning Participation. Zest is related to Participation in Educational Activities and Self-Directed Learning Participation, and Resolution is related to Self-Directed Learning Participation.

In Population II, Anomia is related to Participation in Educational Activities and Self-Directed Learning Participation; Life Satisfaction and Mood are related to Self-Directed Learning Participation. Zest is related to Participation in Educational Activities and Self-Directed Learning Participation, and Resolution is related to Self-Directed Learning Participation. In each population, 7 relationships were identified.

A summary of these findings indicate that in both populations there is a statistically significant relationship between Anomia and Zest and Participation in Educational Activities; between Life Satisfaction, Mood, and Zest and Self-Directed Learning Participation; and between Resolution and Self-Directed Learning Participation.

Discussion and Application to Practice. The independent variables most frequently related to dependent variables, Anomia and Zest, may in fact be measures of similar attitudes toward ego-involvement and purposefulness. Their frequent association with the education-related variables suggests that participation in education-related activities may serve as a vehicle for the expression of enthusiasm and confidence, and conversely, that lack of participation may reflect alienation and powerlessness.

The frequency with which Self-Directed Learning Participation is related to the independent variables indicates that participation in self-directed learning activities is related to a broad range of attitudes measured by the Anomia and Life Satisfaction scales. Self-directed learning may clearly reflect a person's affirmation of self and the social environment through confidence in his/her own capability and in the worth of his/her effort.

These findings reinforce the need for a strong social dimension in education-related activities planned by practitioners in order to mitigate the effects of personal isolation or anomia. The findings of earlier research that anomia increases with age (Bell, 1957) heightens the necessity for practitioners to develop programs which address both the educational and psychological needs of the older adult.

Further, these findings call for an awareness on the part of practitioners working with older adults that non-participation in education-related activities is a likely expression of alienation or powerlessness. Participation assumes control over one's life and the power to initiate involvement in addition to the confidence that the participant will benefit from it. An older adult with a high level of anomia may be powerless to control and initiate in order to participate. The alienation may have

distanced the person from his/her surroundings, and the undependable environment may inhibit new ventures. It is therefore inadequate to assume that if programs responding to educational needs are presented, older adults will attend. Instead, practititoners may need to consider first the particular means to address the older adult powerless and alienated in order to serve them with education-related activities.

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PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATION: A CRITICAL RESEARCH ISSUE

Michael W. Galbraith, Ed.D.
Assistant Professor of Higher and Adult Education
University of Missouri-Columbia
301 Hill Hall
Columbia, MO 65211

Jerry W. Gilley, Ed.D.
Assistant Professor of Adult Education
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Nebraska Hall
Lincoln, NE 68588-0355

ABSTRACT

Professional certification is a complex process. It is a mechanism that can enhance the adult, continuing, and community education disciplines through the identification of competent practitioners. However, the knowledge base of professional certification needs to be expanded to better understand the issues and implications associated with it. A brief overview of professional certification will be presented in this article. In addition, the critical issues as well as the positive and negative implications will be addressed. Research questions that need to be addressed and expanded upon are also presented. Several suggested methodologies for researching the topic are detailed.

PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATION: A CRITICAL RESEARCH ISSUE

Professional certification is viewed as a vital mechanism in the evolutionary process of professionalization because it focuses attention upon the vital competencies which constitute an occupation. These identified competencies can be used as a self assessment tool for practitioners as well as a basis for defining an emerging field. Competencies also provide academic and professional preparation programs with information for program development and can aid employers in identifying qualified practitioners.

However, a limited data base of information exist on the topic of professional certification as it relates to adult, continuing and community education which further restrict its utilization. Therefore, this vital issue needs to be examined in order to determine its applicability and practicality. As a result, this paper will discuss the definitional dilemma and purposes of professional certification. In addition, research questions regarding the issues and implications will be proposed. Proposed research methodologies which could be incorporated in studying this issue will also be provided.

Definitional Dilemma

Professional certification is a voluntary process by which a professional association or organization measures the competencies of individual practitioners (Galbraith & Gilley, 1985). It is often confused with accreditation, certification, and licensure. Accreditation is a voluntary process by which an independent agency grants recognition to an education program or institution. Certification is also a voluntary process by which an independent agency recognizes the competence of the individual. Licensure is a mandatory process by which the government permits the individual to practice in designated professions. Its primary purpose is to protect the public from incompetent practitioners. While each of these processes attempts to regulate the measurement of competences, the methodologies, populations and purpose of regulation differ.

The primary purpose of both accreditation and certification is to focus favorable attention upon competent institutional programs and individual practitioners. Unlike licensure, the establishment of accreditation or certification does not restrict practice in a given profession.

Regardless of the obvious distractions between the three terms, practitioners continue to use them interchangeably. Once consistent use and understanding of the term is established, adult, continuing and community educators will be able to begin

discussions of the concepts themselves and their implications for their respective fields.

Purposes of Professional Certification

The preparation for certification forces practitioners to increase their own knowledge and ability in their vocation; this, rather than the value of designation itself is viewed as the fundamental benefit of certification. This emphasis on self-improvement results in satisfaction for the individuals, employees, and professions (Gilley & Galbraith, 1986).

Secondary purposes include 1) avoiding external regulations, 2) enhancing prestige of the field, 3) stabilizing individual job security, 4) increasing the influence of societies and associations on the profession, and 5) protecting the public, clients and employers, and improving academic progress.

Research Issues

Numerous issues confront the professional certification process. This section will briefly examine several issues and the research questions associated with each.

The first issue confronting professional certification is concerned with the type of administrative approach selected that will guide the program. The type of administrative approach selected is usually based upon financial, legal, and political considerations. Administration is a critical issue because it helps to determine the overall outcome or efficiency of such programs. The following are critical research questions associated with the administration issue:

- o Is the certification program administered directly by the association?
- o What type of financial support is provided for the administration of certification program?
- o Is there a relationship between the type of administration used and the effects of the certification program upon a vocation?

The second issue is related to competency identification for practitioners. Competency identification is an important issue because it is the bases for determining what constitutes a competent practitioner. Research issues involved with this issue are:

- o Who should be responsible for the identification of competencies for each role within a vocation?
- o What process should be utilized to identify competencies?
- o How will you determine if the identified competencies are reliable and valid for measuring proficiencies in the vocation?

Another issue confronting professional certification is that of criteria for evaluation which relates to the need for a mechanism to measure the identified competencies. Research questions associated with the criteria for evaluation issue are:

- o Who can identify the appropriate criteria and approach for the certification program?
- o What mechanism will be used to evaluate applicants for certification?
- o How rigorous should the examination be?
- o Who should be involved in the construction of the criteria of the evaluation instrument?
- o What criteria are more and which criteria are less important in determining the qualification of individuals for certification?

A fourth issue is that of grandfathering. This issue is important because we need to know what to do with individuals that already comprise the vocation. Research questions need to be addressed such as:

- o Does grandfathering improve the quality of certification programs?
- o Does grandfathering deplete the supply of potential candidates for certification?
- o Are individuals that are grandfathered undergo the same requirements for recertification after a specific period of time?

Significant legal issues confront those who operate professional certification programs. This is a critical issue because it is a very sensitive area of subjectivity leading to possible claims of discrimination. The research questions for this issue are:

- o Is certification established as a prerequisite to employment?
- o Are members or non-members subjected to the identical criteria for certification?
- o Has due process procedures been established for those who fail to receive certification?

A professional certification program will also be confronted with the issue of membership. Who will be allowed to receive certification is the primary concern that guides this issue. Therefore, the following research questions should be addressed:

- o Can non-members of a professional association be allowed to obtain certification?
- o Does certification divide the membership of the association?
- o What segment of the membership generates criticism regarding the certification program and why?

Another critical issue is that of recertification. As a result of the everchanging and diverse nature of the technological

and informational base, knowledge and competency levels of practitioners can quickly change. Recertification research questions include:

- o When should recertification be initiated?
- o What process should be used to reexamine competency levels?
- o Should mandatory continuing education be a component of recertification?
- o Should continuing education be academic-oriented or performance-oriented?

The final issue addressed in this paper concerning professional certification is concerned with revocability. Revocability is important because it helps maintain control over the certification process. Research questions associated with the issue of revocability of certification status are:

- o What bases are used to revoke certification?
- o How does federal and state judicial rulings affect revocability?

Research Questions Concerning Implications

A professional certification program provides numerous positive and negative implications for the adult education, continuing education, and community education areas. It is not within the scope of this paper to detail in-depth each implication, however, the following research questions provide a basis for further inquiry.

- o Does professional certification enhance the profession?
- o Does professional certification programs identify and improve competencies of the practitioner?
- o Will professional certification programs provide a mechanism for academic curricula design?
- o How does such programs provide recognition to practitioners?
- o Will earning potential be increased?
- o Will professional certification programs provide for standardization of the profession?
- o Will division among professionals and the profession occur?
- o Is it possible to identify core competencies?
- o Can an agreed upon evaluation process be established?
- o Are the financial and human costs of professional certification to excessive?
- o Will regulation of the profession result because of professional certification programs?
- o Will membership be restricted?

Research Methodology

Professional certification is a complex process. Because of its complexity, the manner in which individuals research this topic will depend upon the issue or issues they wish to pursue. Several methods will be briefly discussed in this section.

The first method for investigating professional certification is to survey associations that maintain professional certification programs. A well developed survey questionnaire should be constructed which will address and reveal the numerous approaches, issues, and implications utilized and confronted by such associations. Another approach is to survey the individuals within the field to acquire feedback about certification or to survey the administrators of such programs. Content experts, who deal with each issue area, should also be considered as a possible population to survey.

The research and statistical technique utilized will depend upon the chosen population and desired outcomes. Presently, studies are needed to determine the relationship between identified issues and the total professional certification process. As more data on this topic are acquired, the positive and negative issues and implications for the profession can be realized which can expand the knowledge base of information that ultimately will have a major impact on practitioners.

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ENDNOTE: For a complete overview of professional certification see: Galbraith, M. W. & Gilley, J. W. (1986). Professional certification: Implications for adult education and HRD. Columbus: National Center for Research in Vocational Education.

ASSESSING TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

by
Jane A. Grimstad, M.S.
University of Wisconsin-Madison

Mailing address: 6803 Cooper Avenue
Middleton, WI 53562

ABSTRACT

As managing human resources becomes more critical as pressures to hire and promote women, minorities, those over 40, and the handicapped, organizations will devote more time and money to training. Organizations will utilize training as a way to develop knowledge, skills and abilities of employees to achieve both organizational and individual goals. Conclusions reached in the literature are in agreement that needs assessment is an important first step in planning programs. There is not agreement on how needs should be assessed nor is there empirical, theoretical or research-based studies to support the use of a particular methodology in any situation. Ford and Wroten (1984) and Wexley and Latham (1981) have formulated approaches to needs assessment based on theory and research. Implications of basing training programs on subjective, nonsystematic needs assessments will be discussed.

ASSESSING TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

by
Jane A. Grimstad, M.S.

Almost all organizations, whether public or private, have some form of training and development program which is typically viewed as a major organizational expenditure, both in monetary and time costs. Some organizations spend as much as 15% of their total payroll on these activities (Eurich, 1985). This function of human resource management is a way for organizations to develop knowledge, skills and abilities of employees in order that organizational and individual goals can be achieved. Managing human resources will become even more critical than it is at the present time as organizations experience more and more pressure to hire and promote women, minorities, individuals over 40 years of age, and the handicapped. Workers will want and need additional training and/or development as a result of changes in job content due to automation and technological advances and as individuals change jobs because of promotion, layoff, or mid-life career change.

There is consensus in the literature that needs assessment is a critical first step in program planning. Scissons (1982) concluded after conducting an overview of the adult education literature that although most would agree that needs assessent is important, there was litle agreement as to how needs ought to be measured. The findings of Datta (1978), Heinkel (1974), and Sarthory (1977) indicates that needs assesment is often ineffective in practice. Many adult educators fail to conduct needs assessments and instead plan programs on the basis of tradition, public relations appeal, intuition, faddism, political pressure, or for greater utilization of existing resources. Brackhaus (1984) found that others, although attempting to do valid need assessments, do not achieve accurate results. The invalid conclusions which result have an appearance of rationality, but are insufficient for making valid decisions regarding programs (Dresch, 1975; Sarthory, 1977). If an organization does conduct a needs assessment, the validity of results will depend on methods and procedures used. Invalid findings are obtained due to lack of systematic sampling, acceptance of low completion rates, or flaws in the instrument itself. The result is that important needs are not identified while oher "non-needs" are considered.

Kirkpatrick (1977) found that few trainers use formal and objective approaches to determine training needs. These informal approaches of assessing training needs can prove to be problematic. Unfortunately, the need for training and development programs has brought about programs that have not been instituted in organizations based on a systematic assessment of need. The goal of needs assessment is to determine which individuals need or desire training and/or development. Popularity, as indicated by employee satisfaction has frequently been given priority over the importance of examining whether the training is effective in bringing about change (Brackhaus, 1984). Surveys asking employees to rank content areas will usually elicit responses based on how well liked a program is rather than real training needs. In order for programs to meet employee and organizational needs, an approach to needs assessment must be devised that will allow for maximum benefits to both groups (employee and organization) based on factors other than satisfaction and popularity.

Knowing what training is needed is a problem that many practitioners

face in organizations today. One of the most difficult and most important phases of training is determining the need for training. Training and development programs must address the needs of individuals and goals of the organization. Systematic, formal and objective approaches of identifying training needs are superior to subjective approaches in that organizational and individual goals are more readily achieved, costs are reduced and the possibility of legal problems stemming from Title VII or the Civil Rights Act and affirmative action program guidelines is decreased (Walker, 1985). Utilizing such an approach to assess training needs within an organization helps evaluate program effectiveness in bringing about desired change.

A model of the training process includes the following steps as described by Goldstein (1974): determination of training needs and objectives, selection of trainees and training methods, and evaluation of training programs. Training and development refers to a planned effort by an organization to facilitate the learning of job-related behavior on the part of its employees (Wexley and Latham, 1981). A formal training program is an effort by the employer to provide opportunities for the employee to acquire job-related skills, attitudes, and knowledge by the systematic process of altering the behavior and/or attitudes of employees in a direction to increase organizational goal achievement. Learning has taken place when the individual acquires skills, knowledge, and abilities which result in a relatively permanent change in behavior (Heneman, Schwab, Fossum, and Dyer, 1983). The term "behavior" is used in the broad sense to include any knowledge and skill acquired by an employee through practice.

The general purpose of training and development involves knowledge and skill acquisition. Common purposes of training and development cited in the literature have one or more of the following goals: (1) to improve an individual's level of self-awareness; (2) to increase an individual's skill in one or more areas of expertise; (3) to increase an individual's motivation to perform his or her job well; (4) to improve the quantity of output; (5) to improve the quality of output; (6) to lower the costs of waste and equipment maintenance; (7) to lower the number and costs of accidents; and (8) to lower turnover and absenteeism and increase job satisfaction.

The ultimate purpose of needs assessment is to determine which individuals need a particular type of service (Maurice, 1980). Effectiveness of training in bringing about change often has been based on participant "happiness indexes." New programs implemented based on popularity or a quick-fix philosophy often go through a cycle of widespread acceptance, modification and finally, extinction (Campbell, 1971).

This situation occurs because few organizations systematically ascertain training needs. Packaged programs are purchased which are not based on any type of needs assessment but rather as a treatment of a symptom of a problem, not the cause. Organizations seldom evaluate the effects of the programs they purchase or utilize any follow-up strategies to reinforce learning. This type of quick-fix philosophy lends itself to short-term planning and does not take on a broad, long-term planning orientation that is central to needs assessment (Nadler, 1979).

Problems that practitioners have cited in conducting needs assessment are: (1) cost of acquiring and analyzing needs assessment information; (2) the investment in time required to conduct an adequate needs assessment; (3) the short lived relevance of needs assessment data; and (4) the inability to predict how needs can change over time (Maurice, 1980).

By systematically determining training needs based on theory and research organizations will use training and development interventions only for the people and the situations where needed. One approach that has been suggested to analyze and identify training needs consists of organization, task, and person analysis (McGehee and Thayer, 1961). These analyses provide answers to the questions, "where is training needed in the organization?"; "what must a trainee learn in order to perform the job effectively?"; and "who needs training and what kind?".

Organization analysis is concerned with examining the organization as a whole. The primary purpose of an organization analysis is to determine where the organization training activities should and could be conducted by addressing the questions, "is training needed?"; and "will training be successful?". It is unusual for all units or divisions within an organization to have the same training and development needs making it impractical to have organization-wide training programs without assessing training needs.

The environment in which an organization operates can be a critical factor in determining whether training and development is needed. If the training function is to survive it must be financially supported by the organization. Further, the environment can affect the way jobs are designed, how employees are supervised, and how decisions are made (Schneider, 1976). The environment also influences the structural nature of the organization itself. Unless it is known what the organization and its subunits are trying to accomplish, there is little basis for determining where and what kind of training is needed. Both short- and long-term goals must be established in order that programs not focus solely on solving immediate problems to the extent that long-term, preventive training is completely forgotten.

Organization analysis also emphasizes employment planning and forecasting. This form of feedforward control will help eliminate errors in personnel planning and forecasting that would result in inadequate supplies of trained personnel (Filley, House, and Kerr, 1979).

The way employees perceive specific aspects of their work and membership in the organization is an important tool to use when assessing training needs. Often, if the environment is very poor, employees will resist any kind of training given by the company. A careful examination of an organization's environment using job satisfaction inventories can help pinpoint problem areas within the organization that will need strategies other than training to improve.

Task analysis involves developing a description of the target job in order to determine the content of a training and development program. Most organizations have written job descriptions which portrays the job in some detail, but does not give enough specific information to put together a training and development program. Task identification helps to gather specific information about a particular job.

Task identification focuses on the overt, observable behaviors that are involved in performing a job (Wexley and Latham, 1981). Several different approaches can be used for identifying tasks which break down work into task units that can then be used for determining content of a training and development program. The information obtained from the job description and task identification is used to construct the course objectives which specify desired behavior of the trainee at the end of training.

Person analysis focuses on the individual employee and deals with the

question, "who needs training and what kind?" (Wexley and Latham, 1981). The process begins with techniques to measure an employees' job proficiency. The outcome of this measure should be looked at critically in order to determine how and where to make improvements that will benefit both the employee and the organization. This step requires a systematic appraisal of each employee's strengths and weaknesses using the information collected during the job proficiency analysis.

Other methods of assessing training needs have been described in the literature. For on-going programs Ford and Wroten (1984) have described a method that links training evaluation to training needs reassessment using Lawshe's (1975) Content Validity Ratio (CVR) approach. This approach was used to establish job relatedness of training program content. In addition, the Matching Technique (Ford and Wroten, 1984) has been used to improve job relatedness of testing procedures of a training program. The training staff can revise the test to insure that test items reflect knowledges needed for job performance. This procedure could also be applied to skill tests to insure that the skills being tested are needed for job performance.

Maurice (1980) advocates developing indicators of job-training need. Indicators will enable planners to assess needs of specific areas or groups by monitoring their standing on indicator variables. The planner must be sure of the relationship between selected indicator variables and specific programs. Indicator variables will have utility only if they help to explain training needs. In order to develop indicators it is necessary to identify economic, personal or social characteristics which underlie an individual's need for training.

A great deal of information was gleaned as to methodologies of assessing needs, but there was a lack of empirical, theoretical, and research-based evidence to support the usage of any methodology in any situation. It would seem that most of the literature in this area is based on practice and is written by practitioners with little or no supporting theory behind the practices being promoted.

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Factors Leading to Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction in Adult Basic Education

Andrew J. Heresz
ABE Instructor
Waubonsee Community College

Richard A. Orem
Associate Professor
Graduate Studies in Adult Continuing Education
101 Gabel Hall
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, Illinois 60115

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the factors that adult basic education teachers find satisfying and dissatisfying about their jobs. Employment affiliation and status, years of experience teaching adults, sex, and age were the independent variables. Dependent variables were the fourteen items of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction identified by the Job Factors Survey and administered to a randomly selected sample of 202 adult basic education teachers in northern Illinois. Research question testing was done by measures of central tendencies.

The study resulted in the following findings: 1)teachers were consistently satisfied with the work itself, responsibility, personal relations with peers and achievement, but dissatisfied with the opportunity for advancement; 2)community college teachers rated job security and policy and administration as dissatisfying, while public school teachers rated these satisfying; 3)job security and benefit plan, while satisfying to fulltime teachers, were dissatisfying to part-time teachers; 4)more experienced teachers tended to rate more factors as satisfying; 5)noticeable percentage differences were observed between males and females on the factors job security, growth, and personal relations with a superior; 6)teachers in the oldest age category indicated more satisfying factors than any other age category.

Considering this research, there is a need to study the policies that apply to ABE teachers' career opportunities, job security, and benefit plans by institutions sponsoring adult basic education programs. Larger-scale studies into the work environment of ABE volunteers should be considered, as well as for teachers employed by other than community colleges and public schools. Research to determine what effect job dissatisfaction has on the quality of educational services delivered should be conducted.

Factors Leading to Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction in Adult Basic Education

The question of people's relationship with their jobs continues to be a basic one. Individuals may find their jobs to be a mere source of livelihood, or the most significantly fulfilling part of life; a job may involve subjugation or the development of one's finer potentials.

If job dissatisfaction affects many workers, might it be observed among some ABE teachers? As with workers in jobs at all levels of society, discussion takes place among ABE teachers on the positive and negative aspects of their jobs. This "informal" evaluation yields results that are rarely documented. A structured study of ABE teacher job attitudes may provide data leading to practical consequences and applications. Even (1975) suggested that "there is a need to become aware of the self-perceived role and role strengths of employees; and if used, there is greater job satisfaction which will result" (p. 9).

The Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine the factors that ABE teachers find satisfying about their jobs and the factors that ABE teachers find dissatisfying about their jobs when taking into account certain demographic variables.

Significance

From many perspectives it is important to understand the job feelings of those teaching in ABE. To the organization or institution responsible for providing the ABE program, the payoff may bring increased teacher productivity, decreased turnover, decreased absenteeism and smoother working relations; to the student attending an ABE program, it may bring increased program effectiveness through a stronger commitment and effort from the teacher; to the individual teacher, an understanding of the forces that lead to satisfaction may bring greater work enjoyment and greater job satisfaction.

Research Questions

1. What factors do ABE teachers as a group find satisfying and dissatisfying about their jobs?
2. What factors do ABE teachers find satisfying and dissatisfying about their jobs when analyzed by employment affiliation?
3. What factors do ABE teachers find satisfying and dissatisfying about their jobs when analyzed by employment status?
4. What factors do ABE teachers find satisfying and dissatisfying about their jobs when analyzed by years of experience in teaching adults?
5. What factors do ABE teachers find satisfying and

dissatisfying about their jobs when analyzed by sex?

6. What factors do ABE teachers find satisfying and dissatisfying about their jobs when analyzed by age?

The Literature Base

The study of job satisfaction is perhaps one of the most popular topics to attract the attention of researchers in the fields of psychology, sociology, business management, and industrial relations. The reason for the popularity of the topic is not hard to explain. Most individuals spend a substantial part of their adult lives at work, so that an understanding of factors involved in job satisfaction is relevant to improving the well-being of a large number of individuals in an important aspect of their lives. Another reason for investigating job satisfaction is the belief that increasing job satisfaction will increase productivity and hence the profitability of organizations.

One of the most popular accounts of job satisfaction involves fulfilling the individual's needs. Maslow (1943) divided needs into those of a lower-order (basic physiological, safety and security, and social needs), and those of a higher-order (esteem and self-actualization). Maslow suggested that only after the lower-order needs are satisfied are people capable of being concerned with fulfilling higher-order needs. In the job situation, the needs hierarchy would predict that after the lower-order needs for security and pay have been satisfied will the employee seek satisfaction and achievement from the work itself.

Closely related to Maslow's needs hierarchy is Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory of job satisfaction. Herzberg disputed both the "human relations" view that human relationships were of critical importance in job satisfaction, and the "traditional" view that job satisfaction lay along a single continuum. Herzberg's two-factor theory argues that the causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate and distinct. He distinguishes two classes of factors involved in job satisfaction. The first group, motivators, are factors which, if present in the working situation, lead to satisfaction. Such factors include achievement, recognition and the intrinsic interest of the work itself, and correspond to the higher levels of "self-autonomy" and "self-actualization" in Maslow's needs hierarchy. The second group, hygiene factors, when inadequate, lead to job dissatisfaction. Among the hygiene factors are pay, security, and physical working conditions, and these correspond to the lower-order needs in Maslow's hierarchy.

Investigations into adult basic education teachers and job satisfaction, though limited, have provided information to expand the knowledge base on adult educators. Even (1975) found that teachers do not believe there is an opportunity for promotion in the ABE program; while many teachers are not interested in promotion, other teachers have an interest in promotion. They have considerable enthusiasm for their work, with ideas about good teaching, and have sustained their

interest, enthusiasm and concern through the compilation of resource materials to help them in their work. Moore (1979) found that ABE teachers enjoy their work and get satisfaction working with competent people. At the same time, they would like more recognition by employer and community, including a career and salary ladder for teacher advancement.

More recently, a growing body of literature (Gappa, 1984; Parsons, 1980) points to the issue of part-time employment as having considerable influence over teachers' sense of job satisfaction, particularly in post-secondary education. Since a large proportion of ABE instruction in many states takes place in community colleges, the issue of part-time employment may be one of growing concern to adult educators as well as to community college faculty in general.

Design of the Study

The sample for this study was a randomly selected group of ABE, ESL, and GED teachers employed in programs in northern Illinois. Each teacher was sent a copy of the Job Factors Survey and was asked to supply some demographic information. The Job Factors Survey identified 14 factors relating to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction: work itself, responsibility, interpersonal relations (peers), interpersonal relations (superior), supervision, achievement, recognition, growth, work conditions, job security, policy and administration, salary, advancement and benefit plan. For each of the 14 factors, respondents were asked to check if the factor was satisfying or dissatisfying. The Job Factors Survey was constructed to gather data based on the theoretical construct and factors developed by Herzberg. Of the original sample of 202 teachers sent questionnaires, 115 returned usable responses representing 56.9% of the total. Information obtained from each questionnaire was tabulated in a frequency distribution to determine responses for each of the variables. Data were analyzed using measures of central tendencies.

Analysis and Interpretation of Findings

It was concluded that, in general, four factors--work itself, responsibility, personal relations (peers), and achievement--were satisfying for all teachers. At the same time it was concluded that one factor--advancement--was dissatisfying for all teachers. This suggests that while ABE teachers clearly enjoy certain aspects of their work, they feel thwarted in their professional aspirations.

Community college and public school teachers were in general agreement on most job factors. However, community college teachers indicated that job security, policy and administration were dissatisfying; public school teachers reported these factors as satisfying. This would suggest that if public school ABE teaching positions are eliminated, continued employment may be retained by contractual agreements which provide for "bumping rights" into the K-12 sys-

tem. Community colleges usually offer no options and reserve the right to terminate a class if enrollment is not at a minimum level. Teachers who work for programs other than public school or community college indicated the greatest number of dissatisfying job factors with eight. However, the small number of respondents in this category (8) would caution against generalizing this finding to a larger population.

There was near unanimity between part-time and full-time teachers on the job factors. However, job security and benefit plan, satisfying to full-time teachers, were dissatisfying to those teaching part-time. This difference may be created by the perceived instability of part-time teaching positions, and the lack of any benefit plan usually associated with employment. Volunteers, substitutes, and aides, while in general agreement on the satisfying and dissatisfying factors with part- and full-time teachers, were equally divided between satisfying and dissatisfying on work conditions, and policy and administration.

Although there were similarities in the job factors selected by teachers based on experience, the more experienced teachers tended to indicate greater job satisfaction. Likewise, male and female teachers were in agreement on the same satisfying and dissatisfying job factors. However, male teachers indicated a noticeably higher satisfying percentage in their personal relations with a superior than did female teachers. The opportunity for growth was rated noticeably higher as a satisfying job factor by females than males. Job security was noticeably more dissatisfying for females than males.

The differences noted between male and female teachers have at least two explanations. First, teaching in ABE is primarily a female occupation. This implies that men are avoiding the part-time teaching jobs, leaving them to women who are unable or do not seek more prestigious full-time jobs. Second, the consciousness-raising efforts of women's groups in recent years have led to a self-orientation for women, a turning inward to securing a satisfying job that offers prospect of personal growth, and a belief in developing themselves at the workplace. Women are likely to demand a great deal from their ABE work and employer, more so than men.

The age of teachers represented a distinct variable in the rating of satisfying and dissatisfying job factors with older teachers indicating more factors as satisfying than younger teachers. Younger teachers are possibly still in the process of developing personal career plans. For them, teaching in ABE is an exploratory process which they view as an opportunity to assess the potential opportunities they seek. The older teachers may have worked in ABE to supplement full-time employment elsewhere, or have other sources of income, and therefore have diminished job expectations but derive satisfaction from their adult teaching position.

Some Conclusions

Dissatisfaction with professional advancement was the most frequently cited source of job satisfaction within all categories of respondents. The current ABE advancement structure, at least that which is commonly used by community colleges in Illinois, provides only limited incentive to teachers. Larger-scale studies into the work situations of ABE volunteers and teachers employed by other than community colleges and public schools is suggested. With the increasing emphasis and use of volunteers in adult literacy, the limited sample of respondents in this study may not be representative of the typical job feelings of this group.

While this study focused on how teachers feel about their jobs, research to determine what effect job satisfaction/dissatisfaction has on the quality of educational services delivered to ABE students should be conducted. Understanding the relationship betwen satisfaction/dissatisfaction and its possible impact on student outcomes is crucial.

The need for adult literacy and adult basic education programs in this country has not diminished over the last 20 years. Rather, there is increasing evidence that adult basic education needs to be considered an essential part of our nation's educational effort. With that in mind, we need to research the policy implications of our current practice of treating adult basic education as a marginal delivery system with a particular emphasis on the training and employment conditions of the classroom teachers. Their existence and contributions need to be recognized, and an honest, committed, and ongoing effort needs to be made to deal with their concerns.

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Abstract

The Role of Interpersonal Communication in
Teaching and Learning Situations

Clifford O. Ihejieto-Aharanwa
Doctoral Student and Graduate Assistant
Northern Illinois University
Gabel 101
DeKalb, IL 60115

Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson (1967) postulate five axioms or rules of communication. Axiom I states, "One Cannot Not Communicate," and Axiom IV says, "All Communication Relationships are Either Symmetrical or Complementary Depending on Whether They are Based on Equality or Difference." This paper applies those two axioms to two kinds of interpersonal communication—interactional and transactional; discusses interactional perspective as a complmentary relationship and transactional perspective as a symmetrical relationship; and explores possible language problems that exist between the teachers and adult learners in educational settings.

Interactional perspective of interpersonal communication taking the complementary stance stresses that one person is superior to the other. The learning environment is highly structured. The teacher is in command, imposes predetermined requirements, presents the students with prepackaged information, and the learners resort to coping behaviors. Transactional perspective of interpersonal communication assuming a symmetrical relationship diminishes the attitude of superiority and allows participants to communicate as equals without the superior losing his status. The learning environment is collaborative and humanistic bearing in mind the relational as well as the content of the communication.

Nevertheless, language problems exist in both interactional and transactional perspectives with interactional perspective as more acute. Research is suggested to investigate which one of the two interpersonal approaches is a better style of handling teaching and learning situations.

The Role of Interpersonal Communication in Teaching and Learning Situations

Knowles has suggested that the teacher is the most important factor influencing the nature of the learning environment (Knowles, 1970, p. 41). This means that how the teacher defines himself or herself in terms of status, knowledge, verbal and nonverbal behavior, and relations in the learning environment to a great extent, has a bearing on the learning outcome. Holmes (1980, p. 18) in his study of interpersonal behaviors admonishes that: "Adult educators must understand themselves in the context of their professional belief system in order to select those strategies necessary for meeting effectively the needs of the adult public they serve." Adult educators who understand their academic orientations and interpersonal skills... "modify their expectations with the realization that most ABE (as well as some other adult learners) come with negative and/or limited experience in a formal learning setting, a limited attention span for study, a high degree of self-doubt from past failure, and a tendency to take offense (Mezirow et al., 1975)." The consideration of the adult learners characteristics is an interpersonal skill that enables those teachers to effectively relate to the students. As Orem and Ulmer (1980, p. 271) pointed out, "successful teacher-student interaction may have greater effect on student attendance and classroom success than program content."

This paper attempts to look at the role of interpersonal communication in teaching and learning transactions between adult educators and adult learners. The paper will examine and distinguish two kinds of interpersonal communication—interactional and transactional, and address language problems between the teachers and learners.

The objective of the paper is twofold: (1) to show how the understanding of the topic can enhance teaching and learning, and (2) to spur further research on the dynamics of interpersonal communication in the educational environment. As Littlejohn (1983) points out, "Persons have a basic need to increase self-acceptance and acceptance of others, a need that is hard to fulfill in the presence of threat and defensiveness." Argyris illustrates that this is an interpersonal problem: "We come to the conclusion that it is impossible for a human being to enhance his awareness and acceptance of (aspects of) his self without simultaneously creating the conditions for others to do the same. Put in another way, an individual's growth and learning (on the interpersonal level) is inexorably tied with his fellow man."[1]

The axioms precipitating the paper are two of the five proposed by Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson as Pragmatics of Communication. They are:

Axiom I. One Cannot Not Communicate

This axiom emphasizes that any perceivable behavior is potentially communicative, intentional or unintentional. When a person comes into interpersonal contact with another person or group of persons, everything they do or do not do communicates. Each person's smiles, silence, clothes, perfume, proximics, kinesics, and verbal behavior all come into the interaction and communicates.

Axiom IV. All Communication Relationships are Either Symmetrical or Complementary, Depending on Whether They are Based on Equality or Difference

Complementary relationship stresses that one person is superior to the other. A highly structured institutional mode instructor or a Theory X manager implicitly, at least, operates under a complementary relationship.

Symmetrical relationship stresses that communicators treat each other as equals, they "mirror each other's behavior." A collaborative mode instructor

or a Theory Y oriented manager exhibits a symmetrical relationship. In either case, the level of involvement, situation and the understanding of the meaning of interpersonal communication defines the outcome.

Definition of Interpersonal Communication

Brooks and Emmert (1980) define interpersonal communication as a process in which from two to twenty (five) persons attempt to influence one another through the use of a common symbol system, in a situation permitting equal opportunity for all persons involved in the process to influence one another. Barnlund (1968) describes interpersonal communication as persons in face-to-face encounters in relatively informal social situations sustaining focused interaction through reciprocal exchange of verbal and nonverbal cues. Johannesen (1983) observes that "participants in interpersonal communication ground their perceptions and reactions in the unique psychological characteristics of each other's individual personalities" and experiences. Stewart (1977) sees interpersonal communication as the transaction that happens when communicators are willing and able to share some of their own personness and to be aware of the personness of the other(s).

In this characterization of interpersonal communication the words—process, interaction, transaction, and personness appear to be the keys to the understanding of interpersonal communication. Process means that communication is dynamic, on-going; interaction denotes communication as a face-to-face encounter; transaction emphasizes communication as relational; and personness makes communication a human action, not objects. It is quite easy for people to relate to process and personness in terms of their meaning and use, but interaction and transaction are often times confused with each other and/or used as synonyms. In interaction, people persuade each other to act within the acceptable range of social norms in order to accomplish public business.[2] In transaction, people persuade each other to share goals, support each other and confirm personal identities.[3] The difference between the two words is not like the difference between day and night. But, their distinction is important in the study of interpersonal communication. This is so because interpersonal communication occurs at those two levels.

Interactional Perspectives of Interpersonal Communication

Interactional perspective recognizes that communicators respond reciprocally to one another face-to-face. Feedback and mutual effects are key concepts.[4] Stewart (1977) points out that it is important to look beyond performance to feedback because if not so, another crucial element of communication will be missed. That element is this:

> Every time persons communicate, they are continually offering definitions of themselves, and responding to definitions of the other(s) which they perceive, p. 19.

Stewart mentions that the process goes on all the time. One's clothes are part of "this is how I define myself" message, just as another person's are. The tone of voice, touch, distance, eye contact, words etc. reveal how one defines oneself in relation to the situation and the person or persons one is talking with. Because people persuade each other to accomplish public business in interaction perspective, they become conscious of their verbal, vocal, and nonverbal behaviors when they interact with their: (1) superiors, (2) equals, and (3) subordinates. They apply different language and language behaviors at these three different levels.

This behavior for an adult educator is perfect because it is consistent

with Axioms I and IV. After all, a teacher ought to perform at a professional standard when talking with his superior or colleague. However, interaction perspective in learning environment may not be favorable to the adult learners because (1) the interpersonal communication relationship is complementary and therefore, the teacher establishes superiority over the students, (2) the learning environment is highly structured and as a result, the teacher "imposes predetermined requirements and presents students with prepackaged information,"[5] (3) it is behavioristic, manipulative, and learners are treated as objects, and (4) the superordinate—subordinate picture of complementary relationship forces the learners to resort to coping behaviors. (More discussions on coping behavior under language problems). At best the teacher is the winner, and worst, the learners are the losers.

Transactional Perspective of Interpersonal Communication

Transactional perspective stresses sharing. It emphasizes holism, imagining communication to be a process of sharing meanings;[6] and that is, it takes into account "the relational as well as the content of our communication."[7] The relationship message indicates how you view the other people, how you view yourself, and how you view the relationship between you and those people, while content message is the expected behavior. This process creates awareness and acceptance of oneself while simultaneously creating the conditions for others to do the same. Participants reach each other to share goals, support each other and confirm personal identities.

Like interactional perspective, transactional perspective is consistent with Axioms I and IV, but transactional perspective takes a symmetrical relationsip stance. A symmetrical relationship diminishes the attitude of superiority and allows participants to communicate as equals without the superior losing his status. It brings out from a teacher the sense of warmth, caring and commitment as perceived by the students. As Brundage and Mackeracher (1980) observed, "Adults learn best in environments which provide trusting relationships, opportunities for interpersonal interactions with both the teacher and other learners, and support and safety for testing new behavior." Where teacher support and involvement are high, it can produce students who are motivated toward self-improvement, academic success, and enjoyment of learning.[8] Much research suggests that when a teacher's communication response to students in one of "I accept you," the relationship is positive and learning is enhanced.[9] Transactional perspective is collaborative and humanistic, and it helps adult learners to see their personness as active human beings capable of learning—barring that they understand the teacher's verbal and nonverbal messages.

Language Problems Between the Teachers and Learners

Language as many anthropoligists have shown, is not only a means of communicating, but also an organ of perception.[10] It creates the world as much as reflects it by calling our attention to some parts of it and by turning us away from other parts.[11] In teaching and learning situations, a teacher's language can enhance or inhibit the understanding of the learning materials.[12] Language problems exist both in interacitonal and transactional perspectives of interpersonal communication, but it is much more acute in interactional perspective. This is so because in interactional perspective, middle class teacher operating at a professional level, uses standard English to define himself verbally and nonverbally. This complementary approach enables the teacher to establish a superordinate-subordinate relationship, thus control and manipulate the learners. A model that illustrates possible language behavior between the middle class teacher and contemporary adult learners has been included for further insights.

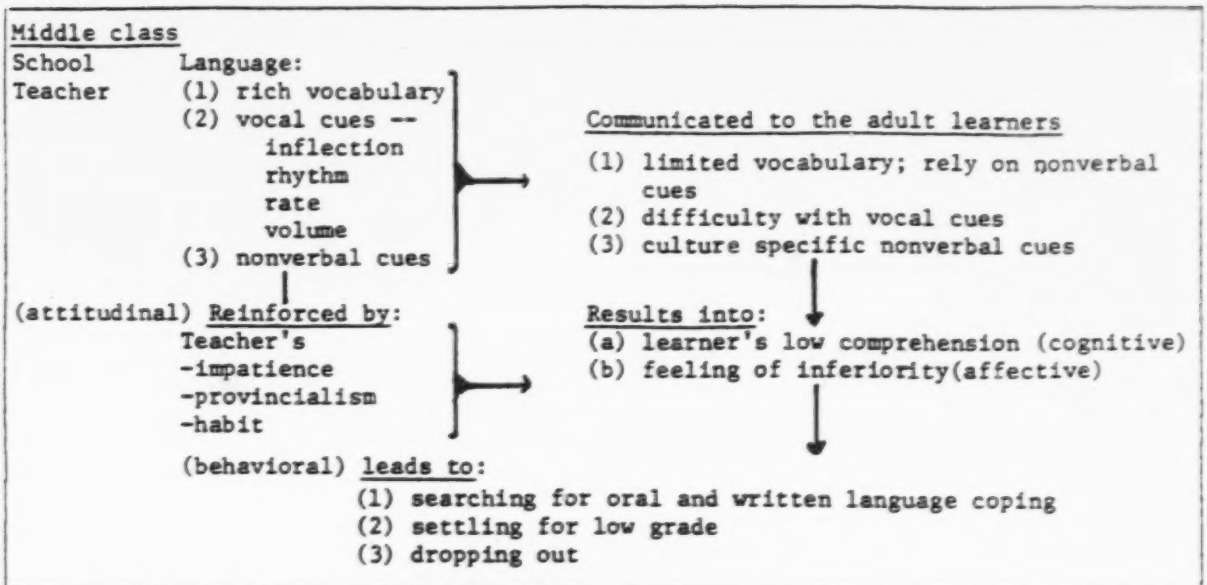

Fig. 1 White middle class teacher and the contemporary adult learners

In the above model, the teacher usually may have a rich vocabulary for professional performance, including vocal cues of inflection, rhythm, rate of speech, and volume - all culture bound - and culture specific. His spoken English is high at a professional level and fraught with a peculiar melody and sophisticated vocabularies. In addition, the accompanying nonverbal cues send signals which may culturally vary from those of the adult learners.

On the other hand, the unsophisticated adult learners receive the teacher's messages with some difficulties arising from: (1) limited vocabularies, (2) inability to filter the teacher's sophisticated paralanguages—the inflections in the words, the articulatory rhythm, rate, and volume of sentences, and (3) culture-specific nonverbal cues that are susceptible to misperception such as showing bull-fight as an entertainment when the bull-fight means gallantary for the Mexicans.

When the adult learners especially the ABE/GED/ESL students are faced with the situation described in the model, it leads to very important psychological factors: (1) low comprehension—(the cognitive domain of learning), and (2) feeling of inferiority—(the affective domain of learning). The teacher's negative attitude towards the "hard-to-teach" adult learners is reinforced by impatience, provincialism, and habit. Impatience, provincialism, and habit are reflected appraisals which some white middle-class teachers exhibit when dealing with the ABE/GED/ESL learners, and this works in the opposite direction as well. When this happens, the resultant effect of the teacher and adult learners interaction leads to the learners: searching for oral and written language coping, settling for low grade, and dropping out.

Teaching and learning is perforce an interpersonal communication phenomenon, one that only the understanding of the dynamics of it can help adult educators to better relate to the students. For this reason, research is suggested to investigate which one of the two interpersonal approaches: interactional and transactional is a better style of handling teaching and learning situations.

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Graduate Studies in Adult Education: An Analysis of Doctoral Programs and Professorial Opinions

Theodore J. Kowalski, Dean

Roy A. Weaver, Associate Dean

Teachers College, Rm 1008

Ball State University

Muncie, IN 47306

ABSTRACT

Two surveys were administered to secure data descriptive of graduate study in adult education in the U.S. A 28-item "Adult Education Professor Opinionnaire" was sent to 225 faculty (74% return). A 22-item "Survey of Doctoral Programs in Adult Education" was mailed to 50 graduate program directors (71% return). Data were analyzed using frequencies and percentages.

Selected "Opinionnaire" findings (1) raised questions about the quality of publications and research in the field, (2) indicated disagreement concerning the certification of adult education teachers and administrators, and (3) called for the development of undergraduate programs for preparing teachers to work with adults.

The "Survey" revealed that (1) 80% of the programs graduate from 3-7 doctorates per year, (2) 98% of the students enrolled are between 27-40 years of age, and 41-60% of them are female. Admission requirements included: (1) a GRE of 900 or above (80%), (2) an undergraduate GPA of 3.0 (58%) and a graduate GPA of 3.3 or higher (43%). Of the programs reporting, only 2% require a foreign language competency, while 94% require a statistical proficiency and 35% require computer proficiency. Fifty-nine percent require core examinations.

This study raises a series of questions related to the goals of graduate study in adult education, policy formation, and curriculum development, and personnel selection.

GRADUATE STUDIES IN ADULT EDUCATION: AN ANALYSIS OF DOCTORAL PROGRAMS AND PROFESSIONAL OPINIONS

Background

Conflict over the goals of graduate study in adult education has raged for at least three decades. In the late 1960s Boyd (1969) argued that the intent of graduate work is to examine "adult education as an area of study." He went on to stress that the "emphasis is on research and not service in the sense of preparing professionals to meet the demands of current needs." While Boyd admitted that an auxiliary outcome might be the development of excellent practitioners, he emphasized that the primary purpose of graduate study is to "observe, analyze, and develop evidence and theory to explain that which we are examining and studying." He underscored his position, concluding: "The doctoral degree must not become a high-level practitioner degree." (191)

In contrast, other writers have criticized graduate study as too theoretical and research-oriented. Daniel and Rose (1982) acknowledged this point, saying: "Without question, those working in the field ... are practical people. Every day they deal with such practical problems as working with inadequate budgets and inadequate facilities, defending the legitimacy of their programs, dealing with instructional methods that fail to work, and improving participation." (77) The authors indicated that overall practitioners are more apt to emphasize areas which relate to job application and to deemphasize areas considered to be more theoretically-oriented. The conclusion reached by proponents of "practice-oriented" graduate programs is that adults ought to heavily influence the content of courses and programs.

These polar points of view sparked our interest in regard to both adult education professors' points of view toward graduate study, in particular, and the field of adult education, in general, and graduate program directors' descriptions of their adult education programs. In addition, we were aware of Goyen's 1983 study of adult education doctoral programs in North America and believed that our study would provide current and comparative data.

Purpose and Method

The purpose of our study was to identify trends in adult education programs and to determine the extent to which these trends are supported by the views of adult education professors. To generate data to accomplish these tasks, two questionnaires were developed. One, a 28-item "Adult Education Professor Opinionnaire, (AEPO)" was sent to 223 faculty listed by the Commission of Professors of Adult Education. One hundred sixty (160) opinionnaires were used in the study for a 71% return rate. The 28-items covered views toward characteristics of doctoral programs, the quality and quantity of research and publications in the field, and issues and trends (from whether teachers and administrators in adult education programs should be certified to whether adult education programs are increasing the emphasis on human resources development).

A second questionnaire, "Survey of Doctoral Programs in Adult Education," was sent to program directors in 50 institutions identified as having doctoral programs in adult education by Goyen (1983) and by Peterson's Graduate programs in the humanities and social sciences (1986). Thirty-seven (37) surveys were used in the study for a 74% return rate.

Report of Findings

Findings from the two questionnaires are reported using frequencies and percentages. In this section, the characteristics of doctoral programs obtained from the 22-item "Survey of Doctoral Programs in Adult Education" are reported. Thereafter, selected results from the "Opinionnaire" are discussed.

Characteristics of Doctoral Programs in Adult Education

Program Location and Degrees

Of the 37 doctoral programs reported, only 4 (11%) indicated that the program is housed in a separate department of adult education. Ten (27%) are within a department including adult education and some other specialization. Two (5%) are housed in a department of curriculum and instruction, 4 (11%) in a department of educational administration, 2 (5%) in a department of educational leadership, 2 (5%) in a general education department, 3 (8%) in a department of secondary or higher education, and the remaining 9 (24%) in "other types of departments." Twelve (32%) offer only the Ed.D. Ten (27%) offer only the Ph.D. Fifteen (41%) grant both the Ph.D. and Ed.D. Eleven (30%) offer the specialist degree. Thirty-four (92%) offer the masters, and 2 (5%) offer the bachelors degree in adult education.

Faculty

Five (14%) of the institutions reported that none of the faculty teaching and conducting research hold a doctorate in adult education. Eight (22%) reported employing only 1 faculty member with a doctorate in adult education. Eleven (30%) reported 2 faculty with the adult education doctorate. Four (11%) said 4 faculty hold this doctorate. Two (5%) reported 5 faculty and 1 (3%) said 6 or more faculty hold the doctorate in adult education.

Five (14%) institutions indicated that only 1 faculty member is assigned primarily to the adult education program. Eight (22%) reported 2 faculty, 10 (27%) reported 3 faculty, 8 (22%) reported 4 faculty, 5 (14%) reported 5 faculty, and 5 (14%) reported 6 or more faculty assigned primarily to the doctoral program.

Students

Eight (22%) institutions reported that the mean age of students earning doctoral degrees in adult education is 27-33. Twenty-eight (76%) reported the mean age as 34-40. Two (5%) institutions indicated that females represent 10-25% of the enrollment. Six (16%) reported a 26-40% female enrollment. Twenty-three (62%) reported females comprised 41-60% of the enrollment. Five (14%) indicated females represent over 60% of the enrollment. Fourteen (38%) institutions reported minority enrollment of less than 5%. Eight (22%) reported a minority enrollment of 5-10%. Twelve (33%) reported a minority enrollment of 11-20% and 2 (5%) reported a minority enrollment of 21-35%.

Six (16%) institutions reported that over 80% of their students have a background in education. Fifteen (41%) said that between 50-79% of their students have an education background. Ten (27%) indicated that between 36-49% of their students have an education background. Six (16%) reported that 25% or less have a background in education.

Eighteen (49%) institutions reported they graduate 3 or less doctoral students per year. Twelve (32%) institutions indicated that from 4-7 doctorates are awarded per year. Five (14%) reported 8-12 graduates and 1 (3%) reported 13 or more graduates per year.

Admission Requirements

For admission, 3 (8%) institutions reported that a GRE score of 1,100 or above is required. Seventeen (46%) require 1,000 or above and 6 (16%) require a score of 900 or above. Eight (22%) institutions do not have a minimum requirement. In addition to the GRE, most institutions require a minimum undergraduate and graduate GPA. One (3%) institution requires an undergraduate GPA of 3.5 or higher [on a 4.0 scale]. Twenty-one (57%) require a 3.0 or higher. Seven (11%) require a 2.7 or higher. Three (8%) require a 2.5 or higher. Five (14%) maintain no specific GPA requirement at the undergraduate level. At the graduate level, seven (19%) of the institutions require a GPA of 3.5 or higher. Nine (24%) require a 3.3 or higher. Sixteen (43%) require a 3.0 or higher. Three (8%) institutions have no GPA requirements at the graduate level. AEPO results indicated mixed support for the GPA as a critical factor in admission decisions. Seven (4%) "strongly agreed" that the GPA is most important, 45 (28%) "agreed," 68 (43%) "disagreed," and 21 (13%) "strongly disagreed."

Thirty-one (84%) institutions maintain no requirement regarding education background as a condition for admission. Six (16%) indicated that applicants "must have some courses in education." None of the institutions require a teaching certificate as a condition for admission. AEPO results showed mixed views toward requiring teaching experience as a condition for admission. Twenty (13%) respondents "strongly agreed" that teaching should be a prerequisite, 44 (27%) "agreed," 69 (43%) "disagreed," and 9 (6%) "strongly disagreed."

Most institutions (28 or 76%) do not require a specific graduate degree as a condition for admission. Eight (22%) require a master's degree in a human service field. Only 1 (3%) requires a master's degree in adult education.

Program Requirements

Eleven (30%) institutions require 3 or more courses in educational foundations. Sixteen (43%) require 2 or less courses. Ten (27%) do not require work in educational foundations. AEPO results showed majority support for requiring general education: 19 (12%) of the respondents "strongly agreed," 68 (43%) "agreed," 39 (24%) "disagreed," and 9 (6%) "strongly disagreed."

Residency requirements range from 3 (8%) institutions that do not have a requirement to 6 (16%) that require more than 2 semesters. Twenty-three (62%) require 2 consecutive semesters, and 1 (3%) requires 1 semester. AEPO results supported current residency requirements. Eleven (7%) "strongly agreed" that residency requirements should be abolished, 34 (21%) "agreed," 69 (43%) "disagreed," and 24 (15%) "strongly disagreed."

Six (16%) institutions require core examinations with anonymous grading. Sixteen (43%) require core examinations, but reviewers know who the exam writers are. Thirteen (35%) do not require core examinations. AEPO results supported the notion that qualifying examinations should be individualized. Twenty-four (15%) respondents "strongly agreed," 83 (52%) "agreed," 26 (16%) "disagreed," and 6 (4%) "strongly disagreed."

Most institutions (26 or 70%) allow the doctoral student to choose the cognate or minor. Four (11%) require the cognate be in a field related to adult education. One (3%) requires educational psychology as the cognate. Five (14%) do not require a cognate.

In terms of proficiencies 35 (95%) institutions require statistical analysis. Thirteen (35%) require computer proficiency. Five (14%) require ethnographic research. Three (8%) require 1 foreign language and 1 (3%) requires 2 foreign languages. Three (8%) require historiography. Nineteen (51%) require a variety of other proficiencies. In addition to using course work to meet proficiency requirements most institutions (31 or 84%) require examinations. Three (8%) require examinations in "certain instances." Two (5%) do not require examinations in addition to course work.

Certain research courses are required in most programs. Thirty-three (89%) institutions require general research methods. Thirty-one (84%) require introductory statistics, and 25 (68%) require advanced statistics. Eleven (30%) require research methods in adult education. Eight (22%) require a course in ethnographic research. Six (16%) require work in computer applications. One (3%) requires a course in historiography. AEPO results showed little support for qualitative or ethnographic research. Fourteen (9%) respondents "strongly agreed" that qualitative research should be stressed, 43 (27%) "agreed," 59 (37%) "disagreed," and 18 (10%) "strongly disagreed."

In looking toward the future most doctoral program directors were optimistic. Fourteen (38%) expected substantial program growth. Eight (24%) anticipated slight growth. Six (16%) felt growth would stabilize. One (3%) expected the program to diminish slightly, while 3 (8%) anticipated the program would diminish substantially. Two (5%) indicated their program will be dropped. AEPO results showed little support for more doctoral programs in adult education. Six (4%) respondents "strongly agreed" that more doctoral programs are needed, 37 (23%) "agreed," 65 (40%) "disagreed," and 18 (11%) "strongly disagreed."

Issues and Trends

Other issues were considered in the AEPO. Professors were asked whether the field of adult education attracts students with ability equal to or greater than students in other academic disciplines. Forty-nine (30%) respondents "strongly agreed," 75 (47%) "agreed," and 23 (14%) "disagreed."

AEPO respondents were asked whether graduate study is too theoretical. One (1%) professor "strongly agreed," 20 (12%) "agreed," 90 (56%) "disagreed," and 29 (19%) "strongly disagreed."

Generally, AEPO respondents raised reservations about the quality of research, textbooks, and publications in the field. Only 1 (1%) professor "strongly agreed" that the quality of research activity is adequate, 36 (23%) "agreed," 73

(45%) "disagreed," and 29 (18%) "strongly disagreed." Only 1 (1%) "strongly agreed" that the quality of textbooks is adequate, 46 (29%) "agreed," 79 (49%) "disagreed," and 19 (12%) "strongly disagreed." Five (3%) of the respondents said the quality of journals is adequate, 68 (42%) "agreed," 66 (41%) "disagreed," and 10 (6%) "strongly disagreed."

Trends affecting adult education programs were considered in the AEPO. The move toward greater emphasis upon human resource development was considered. Fourteen (9%) respondents "strongly agreed" that there is greater emphasis, 75(47%) "agreed," 33 (21%) "disagreed," and 5 (2%) "strongly disagreed."

The impact of technology was explored. Four (3%) respondents "strongly agreed" that technology will result in more adults opting for individualized learning programs as opposed to organized classes, 59 (37%) "agreed," 59 (37%) "disagreed," and 3 (2%) "strongly disagreed."

The potential threat of increased private corporation involvement to university programs was examined. Three (2%) respondents "strongly agreed" that corporations pose a threat, 20 (13%) "agreed," 99 (62%) "disagreed," and 21 (13%) "strongly disagreed."

Comparison to the Goyen Study

Generally, similar results to the Goyen study were found. The following comparison illustrates the point.

	Kowalski/Weaver Study		Goyen Study	
	N	%	N	%
Number of programs studied	37		38	
Programs offering:				
Ph.D. Only	10	27%	7	18%
Ed.D. Only	12	32%	15	39%
Both Ph.D., Ed.D.	15	41%	16	42%
Admissions:				
GPA use	32	86%	32	84%
GRE use	26	70%	22	57%
GPA range	2.7 - 3.5		2.5 - 3.5	
Residency required	30	81%	33	87%

Other comparisons revealed similar results.

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AN ANALYSIS OF SELECTED PERSONAL VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH PERSISTENCE IN A NONTRADITIONAL, LIBERAL ARTS UPPER DIVISION DEGREE PROGRAM

Michael Langenbach - Associate Professor
University of Oklahoma

Lloyd Korhonen - Associate Professor
University of Oklahoma

College of Education
820 Van Vleet Oval
Norman, OK 73019

Abstract

This study examined students who had enrolled in a nontraditional four year degree program, with the upper division option (UDO). The UDO is designed for students who have completed the equivalent of two years of college prior to admission.

Six demographic factors were studied, age at time of entry, gender, occupation, distance from campus, number of books read the previous year, and number of jobs held the previous ten years. Other variables studied included purposes for participating, personality traits, and preference for type of instructor.

Chi-square tests, t-tests, analyses of variance and canonical discriminant analyses were conducted to determine differences between persisters (those who completed the program) and nonpersisters (those who did not complete). Of the demographic variable studied, age at time of entry, distance from campus, number of books read and number of positions held showed significant differences between groups.

The students were asked to rate fifteen purposes for participating. Four purposes showed significant differences between groups. Twenty-one personality traits were also studied. None of these traits tested significantly. Finally twenty-three instructional variables were studied. Only one of these variables was significantly different between groups.

A canonical discriminant analysis of all the significant variables yeilded an R^2 of .29, indicating 29 percent of the variance separating persisters from nonpersisters could be explained by the variables.

An Analysis of Selected Personal Variables Associated with Persistence in a Nontraditional, Liberal Arts Upper Division Degree Program

Michael Langenbach, University of Oklahoma
Lloyd Korhonen, University of Oklahoma

Introduction

Generalizations in the field of adult education that attempt to cover the entire field frequently lack power because of the wide variety of practices, settings and purposes. Studies of persisters and nonpersisters can yield generalizations, but the studies and their generalizations need to be within common conditions, in order to be as powerful as possible. Purpose is one such condition.

Adult education experiences are undertaken for a number of purposes. Programs for adults are likewise planned with different purposes in mind. Adult basic education classes, courses for leisure and recreation, and competency-based training programs within an organization all serve different purposes. We assume adults are attracted, or in the case of training, compelled, to participate with some cognizance of purpose. In general, when adults know the purpose for which a program is planned, and willingly participate, the persistance and nonpersistence issue, i.e., generalizations about who persists and who does not, initially ought to be applied only to those programs with like purposes.

The present study is an analysis of selected demographic and psychological variables of adult persisters and nonpersisters in an upper division, nontraditional liberal arts degree program. The paucity of research regarding this type of program suggests we are a step or two away from firm generalizations about adults who participate and persist in them.

The Bachelor of Liberal Studies/Upper Division Option

The Bachelor of Liberal Studies (BLS) program of the University of Oklahoma is an undergraduate degree program that is designed around the social sciences, humanities and natural sciences. Rather than attending courses in a conventional sense, students complete a series of program steps that include independent study phases and seminars of short duration on the campus of the University of Oklahoma. Seminar lengths range from three day weekends to two and three weeks. All seminars are team taught and thematic in nature. The upper division option (UDO) is designed for students who have completed the equivalent of two years of college. The UDO compresses the social science, humanities and natural science study into one year. The interdisciplinary and other individual study steps take another year. Cross (1982) compared the BLS program with programs from Empire State College and Minnesota Metropolitan State College and concluded "most people would classify the BLS program as somewhat more academically conservative" (p. 74).

Related Literature

Adults participating in the BLS upper division program and the program itself appear to share the general characteristics that have appeared in the literature. Hughes (1982) attempted to synthesize the research literature regarding non-traditional students in higher education and arrived at the following generalizations:

> Non-traditional students generally have multiple commitments, are not campus-focused, and prefer informal learning (p. 61).

Wedemeyer (1981) offered descriptions of nontraditional programs as well as students.

> The new roles for teachers may include participation in team teaching and inter-disciplinary efforts, the preparation of materials for learners outside of school, the use of communication media, and the

> employment of special program development processes such as instructional design and formative evaluation. . . Nontraditional learners, exercising choice and independence, and learning at a distance if necessary to gain access to opportunity, select to a greater degree their own curricula and set their own goals respecting knowledge (pp. 210-211).

Long's (1983) review of persisters and nonpersisters in adult education included several generalizations, but none of the studies reviewed concerned a nontraditional liberal arts degree program. Most of the studies were of adults in conventional, non-credit programs for GED or recreational/leisure purposes.

Billingham and Travaglini (1981) studied characteristics of participants in Central Michigan University's undergraduate Individualized Degree Program (IDP). The program they studied most closely resembles the BLS program, but still has some significant differences. The IDP awarded credit for life/work experiences, while the BLS does not. The IDP had four possible majors - Management and Supervision, Community Development, Liberal Studies, and Individualized Studies, while the BLS has only Liberal Studies as a major. According to Billingham and Travaglini (1981) only about four to five percent of the IDP participants elected to major in the Liberal Studies program. All of the BLS participants are liberal studies majors.

Five characteristics predictive of success in the IDP were found by Billingham and Travaglini (1981). These were age at entry into the program, grade point average, number of transfer hours or experiential learning hours, types of learning options utilized and attitude toward IDP personnel. Age at time of entry is the only variable that can be compared because program differences between IDP and BLS preclude comparing the other four variables.

Students who entered at age 30 or less were more likely to be active and make rapid progress toward completion than older students (Billingham and Travaglini, 1981, p. 177). This generalization is in contrast to Long's (1983) summary that suggests those who continue in programs are older than those who do not persist (p. 148). It may be, however, that program, as well as individual purpose may account for such differences.

Method

Although the BLS program began in 1961, comprehensive data collection was not begun until 1980. A supplementary application form was initiated in 1980 that represents the primary source of data for the present study. Other data regarding completion dates or dates of withdrawal were obtained from other office records.

The demographic variables included age at time of entry, gender, occupation, distance from campus, number of books read the previous year, and number of jobs during the last ten years. Other variables included self reports on purpose for participating, personality traits, and preference for type of instruction.

Persisters are all those who successfully completed the program and were awarded the Bachelor of Liberal Studies degree from 1980 to 1986. There were 42 persisters. Nonpersisters were those who withdrew or were withdrawn because of prolonged inactivity (beyond one year). There were 111 nonpersisters.

Chi-square tests, t-tests, analyses of variance and canonical discriminant analyses were conducted to determine differences between persisters and nonpersisters, as well as relationships between the variables and persistence.

Results

Nonsignificant demographic variables. The variables of gender and occupation were not significantly distributed between persisters and nonpersisters. Overall, the male/female proportion was 40/60 and this ratio remained within persisters and nonpersisters. In like manner, the occupational categories of professional and technical (30/70) remained virtually unchanged in the persister and nonpersister groups.

Distance from educational site. An analysis of the data in relation to distance from educational site indicated that a vast majority of both persisters and nonpersisters were likely to come from less than 500 miles. This finding substantiates earlier research (Meadors, 1984). The analysis also showed that persisters were over represented in the over 500 mile category, X^2 (2, N = 153) = 5.87, $p < .06$. It appeared that those students who traveled greater distances were more likely to persist to completion.

Age. An analysis of variance performed on the ages of the BLS Upper Division Option students indicated a significant difference between persisters and nonpersisters F (1,147) = 8.64, $p < .004$. The mean age of persisters was 43.4 years while the mean age for nonpersisters was 37.9 years.

The age difference supports Long's (1983) summary of persister studies but is opposite the finding of the Central Michigan University study (Billingham and Travaglini, 1981). In the latter case students under the age of 30 were more likely to be active and make rapid progress in their degree program. The data from the BLS students failed to support this finding even when the ages were split below and above 30, X^2 (1,N = 153) = 1.28, $p > .25$.

Number of books read. An analysis of the number of books read the previous year indicated that persisters read more than nonpersisters, F (1,152) = 2.79, $p < .10$. The mean number of books read by persisters was 3.50 while the nonpersisters had a mean of 3.07. The BLS program requires a large number of independent readings, therefore it is not surprising the number of books read per year would be a significant factor separating the persisters from the nonpersisters.

Number of positions held. The difference between persisters and nonpersisters, in terms of number of employed positions held during the previous ten years was significant, F (1,152) = 4.60, $p < .04$. The mean number of positions held by persisters was 2.60 while the mean for nonpersisters was 3.06. These data would indicate that persisters in job positions also were more likely to persist in this type of educational program. Long (1983) reported a similar finding in his review of persister/nonpersister studies.

Canonical discriminant analysis. A canonical discriminant analysis was performed over the significant variables of age, number of books and number of positions. The data indicated that age was positively, though weakly, related to persistence. The persisters tended to be older than nonpersisters. The number of books read during the last year also was related positively, but weakly, to persistence. The greater number of books read, the more likely the person was to persist. Finally, the number of positions held showed a negative and weak relationship to persistence. Persisters held fewer positions within the last ten years than nonpersisters. The squared canonical correlation of .084 suggests approximately 8% of the variance separating persisters from nonpersisters can be accounted for by the variables of age, number of books read and number of positions held.

Purposes for participating. Students were asked to rate fifteen purposes for participating in the BLS program. Each purpose could be rated from 1, "Not important," through 5, "Extremely important." A two (persisters and nonpersisters) by five (not important through extremely important) contigency table was constructed for each purpose to permit chi square tests of distribution of ratings. In addition, mean ratings of persisters and nonpersisters for each purpose were compared by t-tests.

Four purposes were rated differently by the two groups. The remaining 11 purposes were rated virtually equally by both persisters and nonpersisters. Of the four purposes only one was significant both in distribution of ratings and means; "To obtain the credential which would qualify me for the kind of job I really want." The significant differences between means corroborate the earlier discussion of purpose. "To learn more simply out of interest" was rated higher by persisters. "To develop a new career" was rated higher by nonpersisters. "To obtain a credential to qualify for

jobs I really want" was rated lower by persisters. Finally, "To have the satisfaction of having the degree" was rated higher by persisters. In each case, persisters' purpose was congruent with the overall BLS program purpose of liberal education.

Personality traits. Each subject was asked to rank him or herself on 21 personality traits. The ranking could be from 1, "Lowest 10%," through 5, "Highest 10%." A two by five contingency table was constructed for each trait in order to conduct chi-square tests of distributions of rankings. Mean ranks of persisters and nonpersisters for each trait were compared with t-tests.

Nine of the 21 traits were responded to differently by persisters and nonpersisters. The remaining 12 traits were responded to in virtually the same way by both groups.

Persisters rated themselves higher with regard to "Academic ability," "Motivation" and "Reading ability." The other three mean differences were nonpersisters rating themselves higher with regard to "Leadership," "Tolerance" and "Ability to deal with uncertainty." It appeared as though persisters may have been more realistic regarding their abilities and more modest when rating themselves on leadership, tolerance and dealing with uncertainty.

The three traits that showed significant distribution variance without differences in means were "Ability to handle stress," "Self-discipline" and "Mental health and emotional stability." The significant chi-squares were explained primarily by persisters being over represented in the "Above average" rating for each and under represented in "Highest 10%" rating for each. Nonpersisters' obtained ratings were exactly opposite in each case. The distributions on these three traits again suggest a modest or perhaps more realistic self-rating for persisiters and more extreme, perhaps unrealistic ratings by nonpersisters.

"Leadership" and the "Ability to deal with uncertainty," both significant in terms of distribution and means, revealed the same pattern as the above three, i.e., persisters were over represented in the "Above average" rating and under represented in the "Highest 10%." Nonpersisters were exactly opposite. Whether this distribution suggests a better sense of reality or more modesty and humility for persisters is speculative. The pattern for the five traits that showed significant distribution variance, however, was remarkably consistent.

Preference for type of instruction. Students were asked to rate twenty-three instructional variables according to a preference scale that ranged from 1, "Of little help," through 3, "Very helpful." A two by three contingency table was constructed for each instructional variable to permit chi square tests of distribution of preferences. Group means of persisters and nonpersisters were checked with t-tests for each variable. Only one of the 23 instructional variables was responded to significantly differently by persisters and nonpersisters. The remaining 22 variables showed virtually equal preferences by both groups.

"Attending concerts, exhibits, dramatic productions" was rated "Very helpful" by a disproportionately high number of persisters and conversely, nonpersisters were under represented in the "Very helpful" cell, X^2 (2, N = 151) = 4.71, $p < .10$. The persisters' means (M = 2.27) were higher than the nonpersisters' (M = 2.03), t (149) = 1.94, $p < .06$. The apparently greater interest in attending concerts and exhibits of persisters is congruent with finding of the same variable to be associated with participation in adult education activities.

Canonical discriminant analysis. The purpose, personality and instructional preference variables that were significant either in terms of distribution or means between persisters and nonpersisters were added to the variables of age, number of books read the previous year and number of positions held the previous ten years, for the purpose of conducting a canonical discriminant analysis. Whereas, age, books and positions accounted for 8% of the variance between persisters and nonpersisiters, the additional significant variables yielded a squared canonical correlation of .29; meaning 29% of the variance could be accounted for by considering all selected variables

simultaneously. The increase in magnitude of the coefficient suggests selected personal variables may carry more potential for explaining why some adults persist to completion while others do not.

Summary

The overriding concern in this study was to be more cognizant of program and participant purpose. In general, when program purpose is the same as a participant's, the likelihood of success is enhanced. Demographic variables of distance from site, age, books read and postions held, all found to be significantly related to persistence, may be used to help designate high risk participants.

Persisters rated themselves higher in academic achievement, reading ability and motivation. Two of these could be related to concrete experience, e.g., GPA, reading test scores, etc. Nonpersisters consistently rated themselves higher on leadership, ability to handle stress, tolerance, self-discipline and mental health, none of which would as likely be anchored to reality via GPA's or test scores. The disproportionately higher ratings for nonpersisters in these personal traits suggest an inflated sense of capability that does not contribute to persistence. Similar indicators may suggest high risk participants may need special provisions to ensure persistence.

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IDENTIFYING THE ADULT LITERACY RESEARCH NEEDS OF INDIANA: UTILIZATION OF THE NOMINAL GROUP TECHNIQUE

BY

LaVerne L. Ludden, Ed.D.
Assistant Professor
Department of Supervision
Indiana University-Purdue University at Fort Wayne
2101 Coliseum Boulevard East
Fort Wayne, Indiana 46805

George S. Wood, Ed.D.
Associate Professor
Adult and Community Education
918 B - Teachers College
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana 47306

ABSTRACT: Policy makers, administrators, and teachers concerned about adult literacy must look to research for answers to some of the perplexing problems surrounding this area. The Indiana Adult Literacy Coalition established a Research Committee to help identify the research needs that were most important to individuals involved with adult literacy in Indiana. This paper explores the efforts of the committee and specifically focuses on the implementation of the nominal group technique (NGT) as a methodology for identifying and prioritizing needs. NGT is a method for systematically collecting data from a small group. Using this method over 44 research needs were identified and the top 20 of these needs were ranked in order of priority.

IDENTIFYING THE ADULT LITERACY RESEARCH NEEDS OF INDIANA: UTILIZATION OF THE NOMINAL GROUP TECHNIQUE

Introduction

When the Indiana Adult Literacy Coalition developed its long range plan of action, it decided that one of its major emphases should be on research, specifically research which could in some way make a contribution to the Indiana effort to reduce functional illiteracy among adults. It did not take the Coalition members long to discover that they did not know what kinds of research would, in fact, make such a contribution. They did not know what research was needed by state leaders, local service providers, and the other important actors in the statewide scenario, to help them to be more effective in their various roles. It was important to identify research priorities in the state as a first step in setting some kind of statewide research agenda.

A research committee was formed. The members decided first to do some personal investigating, contacting friends, colleagues, and other readily available sources of possible information about research needs. Out of these individual member contacts came many suggested research needs. However, the committee realized that more was required to insure the representativeness of the suggested research ideas. Also, a more rigorous, comprehensive effort to examine and prioritize the alternatives was necessary if a list was going to be developed with sufficient confidence that it could be recommended as a statewide agenda. The problem was that the committee was severely limited in time and resources for conducting a needs assessment study. The nominal group technique appeared to be a logical method to meet the goals of the committee.

Explanation of Nominal Group Technique

The Nominal Group Technique (NGT) is a systematic data collection method that combines the synergy provided by a group while minimizing the possibility of dysfunctional group behavior. NGT was initially developed as a problem solving application (Ulschak, 1983). However, it has been adapted by individuals in the training field as a needs assessment tool (Gepson, Martinko & Belina, 1982). Hentschel (1984) uses this description about the eventual results of one NGT process. "The ease, rapidity and civility with which this wonderfully sensible consensus was reached in in definite contrast to may fruitless and frustrating discussions in which veteran adult educators have been unable to agree on even less complex issues facing us and other adult students." A process that receives this type of praise, certainly commands some attention.

NGT consists of a four step process. First, participants are asked to respond to a question or statement by generating a written list of responses. This step can be characterized as an individual brainstorming activity. It typically takes five to ten minutes. Second, the group facilitator asks each member to contribute an idea from their list in a round robin approach. During this time, participants may add additional items to their list, which may be stimulated from hearing ideas that other participants have suggested. Group members are asked not to discuss or critique any idea while the round robin process continues. Third, group members are given the opportunity to discuss and clarify any of the ideas that have been suggested. However, this step is not intended to eliminate ideas or arrive at a "best solution". Rather it provides the chance for each member to thoroughly understand each item that has been contributed. Fourth, group members are asked to rank or rate each item. The facilitator compiles the results of the numerical weighting. This step results in the development of a prioritized list of ideas that reflects the

combined expertise and judgement of the group.

This nominal group technique seemed to be an appropriate method for further identifying research needs in adult literacy for the state of Indiana. It would have the further advantage of determining the most important research needs. The prioritized list of needs could be used in obtaining support from foundations and other private sources for the funding of research.

Participants In The NGT Process

The nominal group technique was used with a group of nine individuals on June 26, 1986. It is recommended that 5-15 people be used in the process. Invitations were originally sent to 15 persons assuming that not everyone would attend. The people originally identified to participate were selected in a manner that would allow a broad representation of viewpoints.

The nine people who participated had at least two characteristics required to insure success for the process. First, and most important, each one had a strong personal and professional interest in the contributions that research could make in supporting local and state adult literacy efforts. Second, they represented a wide variety of viewpoints and organizations. In fact, a quick check indicated that through these nine, we had twenty or more key groups/organizations represented: a local ABE program, a local volunteer literacy program, a library, a public school system, a Private Industry Council, a local job training program, tutors/teachers, the state legislature, the state literacy coalition, the state department of education, state universities, the state vocational-technical school system, a foundation, the state GED testing program, the state adult and continuing education association, the state community education association, the state commission on aging, a state occupational training agency, and several national associations. The careful selection of the participants resulted in a group with a broad perspective and a highly representative set of professional and non-professional interests.

The group was facilitated by the two authors of this paper. The role of the facilitator requires that they explain the NGT process, describe the specific purpose of the group, lead the group through the process, make sure that all participants adhere to the procedures, assist in the clarification of ideas, and perform all listing and tabulation tasks.

Implementation of NGT

The group met on Thursday, June 26, 1986 at a conference room in the State Library. The process as it was implemented with this group of individuals is described in the following narrative.

1. Silent, written generation of ideas. The facilitator explained that the Research Committee was charged with the responsibility of identifying and prioritizing research that was needed to adequately understand adult literacy in Indiana. The participants were asked to list all research that was needed for this purpose. The group was given ten minutes to complete this activity.

2. Round-robin discussion from each member recorded on a flip chart. During this step each person presented one idea from their list and this continued until every individual had presented one idea, then the facilitator had the group repeat the process until all ideas from everyone's list had been presented to the group. All ideas were recorded on a flip chart along with the frequency with which they occurred among the group's members. A total of forty four ideas were generated during this process. The list of these ideas can be found in Table 1. This step took approximately sixty minutes.

TABLE 1

ADULT LITERACY RESEARCH NEEDS
IN INDIANA - RESULTS OF NGT PROCESS
Conducted On June 24, 1986

Item	Description of Research Need	Average Ranking	Absolute Rank	Count	Percent Responses	Grouping By % of Responses*
21	What is the extent of functional illiteracy in Indiana?	4.9	1	9	100%	1
18	What does an effective program consist of & what does it cost?	11.4	2	6	67%	3
14	What happens to persons who successfully complete literacy programs?	11.6	3	6	67%	3
15	Attitudes of school boards & superintendents toward adult illiteracy	11.7	4	7	78%	2
26	What relationship exists between illiteracy and unemployment?	11.7	5	6	67%	3
39	What literacy techniques & materials work best with each learning style?	13.7	6	6	67%	3
22	Demographic profile of the adult illiterate in Indiana	13.8	7	7	78%	2
11	Are consumers aware of & know how to enter existing literacy programs?	13.9	8	5	56%	4
37	What persuades/motivates adults to commit to a literacy program?	14.0	9	7	78%	2
32	How is the cost of doing business impacted by illiterate workers?	14.1	10	6	67%	3
8	Learning settings (locations) & effect on participants	14.3	11	7	78%	2
17	What makes an effective adult literacy instructor?	15.4	12	5	56%	4
31	How many illiterates are created each year - schools, technology, etc.	15.7	13	5	56%	4
23	What learning difficulties occur among non-literate adults?	15.9	14	5	56%	4
34	What impact are literacy programs having on illiteracy?	16.0	15	4	44%	
1	Attrition rates from literacy programs, causes, subsequent results	16.3	16	5	56%	4
25	Economic cost of welfare recipients pre & post literacy education	16.4	17	4	44%	
33	Are there unique learner styles/modes among non-literate persons?	16.8	18	5	56%	4
6	Comparative studies of instructional methods & impact on retention	16.8	19	5	56%	4
24	What kinds of literacy programs do learners want?	16.9	20	5	56%	4
16	Trends of illiteracy & impact on economy	17.7	21	4	44%	
27	What relationship exists between illiteracy and crime?	18.1	22	3	33%	
10	Business and industry needs - levels of literacy for job performance	18.8	23	3	33%	
43	A summary of nationwide research and impact on Indiana	18.9	24	5	56%	4
28	What relationship exists between illiteracy and welfare recipients?	18.9	25	3	33%	
2	Organizations most appropriately involved in literacy programs	19.1	26	5	56%	4
42	What is the affect of public attitudes on illiterates?	19.3	27	3	33%	
38	What is the relationship between self-esteem and literacy?	19.7	28	3	33%	
40	Degree of social acceptance of lifelong learning among non-literate	19.7	29	3	33%	
9	Do current literacy programs address the life skill needs of participant	19.9	30	3	33%	
36	Is literacy valued by non-literate persons?	20.0	31	3	33%	
19	How can literacy programs be most effectively marketed?	20.2	32	3	33%	
29	What relationship exists between illiteracy and minorities?	20.4	33	2	22%	
30	What relationship exists between illiteracy and handicapped persons?	20.7	34	2	22%	
41	How do employers assess literacy needs of employees?	20.9	35	2	22%	
20	What is the return-on-investment of literacy programs	20.9	36	2	22%	
3	Is there a readiness point for individual to learn	21.0	37	2	22%	
5	Examine issues of coping skills versus literacy skills	21.1	38	3	33%	
13	Are factors contributing to illiteracy community specific?	21.1	39	2	22%	
44	How do non-literate people feel about their condition?	21.3	40	3	33%	
7	What things should literacy programs not do/poor assumptions	21.8	41	2	22%	
35	What are the most appropriate programs for bilingual non-literates?	22.0	42	2	22%	
12	What uses of CAI are applicable to literacy training?	23.6	43	1	11%	
4	Vocabulary specific to vocations	23.7	44	1	11%	

* Group 1 = 100% , Group 2 = 78% , Group 3 = 67% , Group 4 = 56%

3. Discussion and clarification of each recorded idea. The group was given an opportunity to clarify and discuss each item on the list. Most of the discussion centered on whether any of the ideas were redundant and resulted in the refinement of some items. Each item was then assigned a number to assist participants in the numerical weighting task. This step took approximately fifteen minutes.

4. Numerical weighting of each idea or problem. The members of the group were informed that they should rank order only 20 ideas for research that they considered to be most important. This was done to make the task less complicated than trying to rank order all 44 ideas. Ranking was chosen over a rating process since it generally is more discriminative. The final results of the ranking appear in Table 1. The average ranking is the raw score arrived at from averaging the rank assigned to each item. The absolute rank represents the final rank of the item based on the average rank. In cases where there was a tie between items on the average rank, the tie was broken by using the total number of participants who included the item in their ranking. This number is designated as count in the table. The percent responses column represents the percentage of participants who included the item in their ranking. Grouping by percent of responses indicates the groups based on the percentage of participants who cited the item as a part of their ranking.

Analysis of Data From The NGT

A review of the data reveals an interesting outcome. The number of participants who ranked an item did not correlate directly with the absolute rank of that item. For example, only 5 participants ranked item 11 and it ended up with an absolute rank of 8, while 7 participants ranked item 37 yet it ended up with an absolute rank of 9. This illustrates one methodological advantage of the NGT approach in that it measures the strength of a group's support for a particular idea rather than just obtaining a tabulation of the group's agreement on an item.

The final analysis revealed that the top ten items that needed to be researched were:

1. What is the extent of functional illiteracy in Indiana?
2. What does an effective illiteracy program consist of and what does it cost?
3. What happens to persons who successfully complete literacy programs?
4. What are the attitudes of school boards and superintendents toward adult illiteracy?
5. What relationship exists between illiteracy and unemployment?
6. What literacy techniques and materials work best with each learning style?
7. What is the demographic profile of the adult illiterate in Indiana?
8. Are consumers aware of and know how to enter existing literacy programs?
9. What persuades/motivates adults to commit to a literacy program?
10. How is the cost of doing business impacted by illiterate workers?

The difference in average ranking between the first and second ranked items is 6.5, while the difference between the second and tenth ranked items is only 2.7. This indicates the strong support for the need to research the question: "What is the extent of functional illiteracy in Indiana?"

Conclusion

There are are a four basic conclusions that can be drawn from this study. First, the nominal group technique provides a systematic method for collecting data from a group of individuals familiar with a specific problem or need. Second, the method has much to recommend it as a qualitative research tool and in fact is somewhat similar to the delphi technique. Third, the data collected has a high degree of validity and the researcher clearly understands what is meant by each response. Fourth, the researcher can use the process to identify information that practitioners need to know and as a result can focus on research that he/she knows with confidence has some immediate use in practice.

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AN ANALYSIS OF FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN IN SENIOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS

Marjory Lyons-DeHority
Consultant, Educational Specialists, Inc.
5518-3 Old Dover
Fort Wayne, IN 46815

Abstract

Women are disproportionately represented in senior management compared to men. However a certain number of women have attained senior level positions in their organizations. The research was directed toward investigating success factors in the advancement of their careers. Two hypotheses were examined: (1) Specific developmental experiences in the personal and career histories of executive women can be isolated as success factors; (2) those success factors will be found to be common to women executives in both traditional and non-traditional occupational fields. The fields selected were the banking (traditional) and the construction (non-traditional) industries. One hundred fifty-one senior management women from both industry groups were purposely selected for study. Data-gathering instruments were the questionnaire and the personal interview. Verbatim comments were recorded for later analysis. Both hypotheses were substantiated by the data. Two outcomes were: for women executives--a prototype of success, and a model for career development.

AN ANALYSIS OF FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN IN SENIOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS

by Marjory Lyons-De Hority, Ph. D.

Women constitute a permanent part of the work force. While in 1960 only 37 percent of the women over sixteen years old worked, by 1985, 55 percent of all women worked.1 In addition, the number of married women in the work force has doubled in the last twenty years.2 Further, the Census Bureau estimates that in 1984 15.4 percent of all U. S. families were headed by women.3

Women in management is no longer a rarity. They occupy positions in entry and middle management in increasing numbers. Few women, however, hold positions in the upper levels of management. How have those few reached senior management? Would it be possible by examining the career development of these few women executives, to discover success factors which could guide other women to upper level management?

The major hypothesis of this study was that critical events and conditions, or success factors, would be found in the career histories of upper management women regardless of their occupational fields. Accordingly, executive women in banking (traditional) and the construction industry (non-traditional) were selected for study from four Midwestern states--Indiana, Illinois, Ohio and Michigan. The research design focused on analyzing success factors during each of three stages of development, the childhood stage, early career stage, and the present career stage. Data were collected by questionnaires and personal interviews of a selected ten percent of the sample. selected sample. One hundred fifty-one women responded.

The data substantiate the hypothesis: Similar critical events, or success factors, were identified in each group of women.

A. SUCCESS FACTORS: Personal and Career Support

1. Fathers and mothers. The parental influence and home environment were critical in building a foundation for the eventual accomplishments of the subjects. During childhood the parents told them they could be anything they wanted to be and encouraged and supported them in pursuing their desires. They were taught that hard work, honesty and loyalty would be rewarded.

Some of the subjects said they were tom boys. Most said they played with boys from an early age. The parents provided a value system and a basis for self esteem which for the most part disregarded the traditional stereotypes about females.

Contrary to earlier research, mothers were cited as important as or of greater importance than fathers which suggests the changing

role of the mother as a worker, role model, provider.

2. Supervisors. Male supervisors aw well as female supervisors were instrumental in authorizing education and training, provided visibility for task accomplishments, provided information about the informal system of operation within the company, provided opportunities for job advancement, provided evaluation or feedback on the quality of the work done, and instilled confidence in the subjects.

3. Colleagues. Friends and colleagues were supportive during the early career as peers in search of upward mobility, and as sources of encouragement. Professors and teachers helped motivate during this period.

4. Husbands. Husbands or male friends were highly supportive during the present period, giving encouragment to take risks, to seek education, or to start new ventures. They acted as sounding boards on organizational politics and tactics, and provided general emotional support.

B. SUCCESS FACTORS: Education and Training

1. College. Although all subjects completed high school, only one third held bachelor's degrees.

2. Special Training. Half of the subjects received specialized training in the appropriate field sponsored by the employer or professional association.

3. Team Experience. Those with athletic team experience learned cooperative action and delegation while those lacking team experience tended to be loners, did not perceive the informal interaction in organizations, and exhibited a management style which precluded teamwork.

4. Childhood Business Experience. Learning the organizational and financial aspects of business while young was accomplished by one third of the subjects by engaging in a business type of activity in youth, such as having responsibilities in the family business.

C. SUCCESS FACTORS: Personal and Career Growth

1. Sex Role Awareness. During childhood most subjects were aware of sex roles, but did not feel restricted by parents or society to typically female activities or pursuits.

During the early career years most subjects reported having difficulty in career advancement because they had not yet proven themselves capable in their work, which they all said they had to do, and because they were female.

By the time they achieved upper managment they had (1) demonstrated their capabilities, (2) developed experience coping with stereotypical prohibitions to advancement, and (3) developed an androgynous managerial style, discarding traditional masculine and feminine traits and incorporating the best of both styles.

The majority of the subjects were married, and valued their husbands as companions and helpmates, which suggests they had a balance of roles between partners.

2. Androgynous Behavioral Style. Both executive groups evolved an effective managerial style blending of male and female traits.

3. Conflict Management. Skill in conflict management was drawn from coping with stereotypical expectations in all three stages of development. Stereotyping thwarted their efforts toward advancement during early career years. They reported they had to work twice as hard as men to prove their abilities, were paid less, passed over for promotions, and not afforded training opportunities.

As executives they had developed an open style of management, exhibiting a willingness to seek solutions to conflicts and difficulties on the job, viewing the situation from more than one perspective and arriving at a win-win resolution.

In addition, half of the subjects reported developing a method of coping with a traumatic occurrence during childhood over which they had no control, such as, alcoholism or death of a parent.

4. Career Plan and Strategies. In general, the subjects under forty developed a career plan, clear goals and strategies. They prepared themselves through education and positioning, had a time table for achieving their goal.

The subjects over forty generally had remained in the company for ten or more years, worked hard, prepared themselves for promotion and waited for the promotions. Not until later years did they begin to think in terms of a career.

D. MODEL FOR CAREER DEVELOPMENT. A primary aim of this study was to develop a model for career development. That model is found on page 5.

E. APPLICATION TO PRACTICE. The writer would like to make three suggestions for utilizing these findings in adult, continuing education or community education efforts as follows:

First, courses for women in managment including the following components:

(1) identification of career goals and preparation for achieving them through education and training, (2) asking for information about job openings and requesting new positions, (3) gaining visibility of task accomplishment, (4) developing a peer support

group, (5) developing a timetable for attaining the goals and alternative strategies for action, (6) securing a method of feedback on performance, and (7) seeking a sponsor within the company to advise and aid in career advancement

Second, counseling for women incorporating the following components:

(1) developing an awareness of sex role expectations of self and by others, and the extent to which those expectations influence career advancement negatively or positively, and (2) developing a knowledge of behavioral style, analyzing the impact of that style on males and females, superiors and subordinates, and amending stereotypical behaviors toward androgony

Third, community seminars and forums based on cooperative planning among parents, teachers, and community leaders focusing on the importance of the childhood years and incorporating the following:

(1) opportunities for the youth to learn about business first hand, (2) guidance in developing career goals and plans to prepare for that career through education and training, (3) establishing a value system of self discipline and reward for task accomplishment, and (4) encouraging and building self esteem for the child

Fourth, public television and cable broadcasts to disseminate through the public medium the concepts and ideas set forth in this paper incorporating the following components:

(1) interviews with sucessful women, (2) discussions with students about their interests and career needs, (3) programs shot at job locale to enable viewers to observe job environments, (4) interviews with supervisors who have assisted others in career advancement, (5) viewer call-in arrangements with a panel to answer career questions

Notes

1. Fort Wayne News-Sentinel, 25 August 1985.

2. Kanter, Rosabeth Moss. The Change Masters: Innovation for Productivity in the American Corporation. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1983.

3. Totenberg, Nina. "Why Women Earn Less." Parade Magazine, February 1985.

MODEL FOR CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN EXECUTIVES

	SUPPORT SYSTEM	EDUCATION	PERSONAL/CAREER GROWTH
Present Career Stage	Husband or supportive male friend listen, give emotional help, praise Supervisor male/female encourages, helps plan growth Colleagues	On-going technical management	Career tactics/ training Androgynous style Conflict management Timing
Early Career Stage	Supervisor male/female provide opportunity for tasks, learning/ visibility Colleagues give peer support	College degree in field Special training	Career goals Time schedule Behavioral style Work to prove self Preparation for upward move Coping with sexism
Childhood Stage	Mother/father supportive of education/ career goals Hard work valued Parents encouraged belief in self	Team experiences convey cooperation/ delegation	First-hand business experiences Sex role not restrictive

Application of the Community Education Process Model

Dr. Joan H. Marshall, Director of the Center
for Community Education, Assistant Professor
222 Stouffer Hall
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Indiana, Pa. 15705

ABSTRACT:

This paper presents the Community Education Model as applied to a higher education setting. It suggests that,since the project was a successful one, the process model has application in developmental education settings as well as in Community Education ones. The paper first review the Community Education Process Model commenting on its benefits. Then the paper reports on results of a faculty training program as well as the program designed for students. Since the program had significantly better results in developing verbal skills than previous programs, the applied process model was useful.

Community Education Model

The Community Education Model is as much process based as it is product oriented. Basically it consists of the following sequence of events.

1. A community with unsolved problem(s) becomes aware of evidence of the problem(s).

2. A concerned group of people meet and identify the problem(s).

3. They select a coordinator/director to organize solutions (courses/programs).

4. The coordinator (in consultation with the advisory group) sets broad directions/goals.

5. Other agencies and interested persons are invited to participate as appropriate (interagency cooperation).

6. The working team plans specific details and accepts the broad goals of the solution (empowerment).

7. Finally, the coordinator and team implement and evaluate the program.

This process could take place in a school or non-school setting resulting in courses or programs to be made available to those with the targeted problem.

This process based model has several key advantages not evident in the more authoritarian based model of problem definition and solution residing with a small group of leaders. First, because inter-agency/group personnel are involved in all phases of the planning, they are more likely to accept/develop a sense of empowerment. This means that they feel their input has become a part of the solution. As a result, they feel responsible for the results of the intervention. Second, because of representation from a variety of specializations, there is a more comprehensive view of potential solutions. The end product is more likely to deal with multivariate strategies rather than single variable solutions. Finally, because decisions are the result of widely diverse input and reached after much discussion, they are most usually "consensus" decisions. Cooperative decision making has been shown, in a variety of settings, to be more original and comprehensive than competive processes.

Step 1. The Problem

For some time, Brooklyn College had provided isolated courses to students who failed two or three of the college's placement examinations in reading, writing and math. In reviewing the records of students entering these courses in the Fall of 1983, it was to documented that these students had been relatively unsuccessful. While assessment retest results for these students varied, only thirty percent passed reading, forty percent writing, and fifty-seven percent math (the math success rate was probably helped by the presence of a large tutoring facility for remedial math students). The attrition rate for these students who entered needing two or three developmental courses, was twenty-two percent after one semester and an additional twenty-eight percent at the end of the second semester. Thus, fifty percent of the students left the college by the end of their first year. Their mean GPA after one semester was 0.96. This was hardly a positive result of their exposure to college and to isolated developmental education courses.

Steps 2 - 6. Problems and Solutions By Group

A generous Title III grant allowed the college to address this joint problem of lack of success and poor retention. An advisory board was identified and I was hired to develop a holistic developmental education program. Working with volunteer faculty from a variety of departments, we designed a program of credit and non-credit offerings which was tailored to many of the suggestions in approach presented in the writings of John Roueche and Hunter Boylan. The 1984 Fall semester entering Freshman, who had failed two or three tests, were offered the opportunity to participate in the program and all but seven students availed themselves of the opportunity. The students took a credit bearing course (Anthropology, Latin, Science in Everyday Life, or Topics in Western Civilization) in addition to their required institutional credit bearing courses in reading, writing, and math. They attended a Learning Center for tutoring and drill work three hours a week and enrolled in a counseling/orientation course which met two hours a week. A detailed analysis of data gathered in the program is being performed.

Several key elements of this process were an active and involved advisory board, a volunteer faculty, cooperation from all support services on campus, and the year-long training period for faculty.

Faculty Training

Since all faculty participating were volunteers, it is clear that certain self-selecting factors would be in operation. A pre/post survey was designed by the director and administered at the beginning of the planning/training year. In addition, faculty were asked to highlight areas where they felt most training was needed. Using these results, small groups were formed to prepare training sessions on a variety of topics.

The survey was in five basic parts dealing with knowledge of incoming students, communication skills, computer and audio/visual information, recognition of specific student problems and teaching activities. The post version also contained a summary evaluation of the year's activities.

As a result of the workshops, courses, and meetings the faculty made shifts in their responses in several areas. The section on computer and audio/visual knowledge showed the greatest change. Since the individual responses are no longer available only simple percentages are reported in the conference handout. The small numbers involved preclude detailed statistical analysis.

Part One Knowledge Regarding Incoming Students

Three areas showed the greatest pre/post shift. They were knowledge of developmental students: (1) potential, (2) aspirations and (3) peer cultures. These results would seem to indicate that the interaction and training resulted in a better understanding of developmental students.

Part Two Communication Skills

There were no major shifts in responses on communication skills.

Part Three Computer and Audio/Visual Knowledge

Major shifts in knowledge were reported on computer topics and audio/visual topics Faculty reported knowledge gains in microcomputing basics, software selection and evaluation, programing and graphics, and audio/visual use in teaching. These results indicate that the Learning Center courses and the workshops had an impact on faculty knowledge.

Four Special Needs of Students

In part four, shifts were seen in two "special need" areas, recognition of test anxiety and providing for handicapped students.

Part Five Teaching Activities

In part five, there were two major shifts in response on knowledge of: diagnosing needs and preparing learning objectives. A chart showing the pre/post percentages will be available at the conference.

Step 7. Program Implementation and Evaluation

	1983 Cohort	1984 Experimental Group	
Reading Passes	30%	70%	+41%
		Chi Square 32 (.05)	
Writing Passes	40%	70%	+30%
		Chi Square 18.18 (.05)	
Math Passes	57%	67%	+10%
% Retained for 2 Semesters	50%	92%	+42%
1st Semester GPA	0.96	2.25	+1.29

Seventy-one percent of the students passed reading retests, seventy percent writing and sixty-seven percent math. In addition, the students' mean GPA after one semester was 2.25 The program lost only five percent of the students by the end of the first semester and an additional three percent by the end of the second. Obviously the mutifaceted approach was successful. How much of the results are due to the use of the Community Education Process Model is unknown: however, the advisory board, faculty and students all expressed positive attitudes about both process and product.

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THE CREATION OF DEVIANCE AMONG ADULT HIGH SCHOOL NONCOMPLETERS: RELATIONSHIP OF PREADULTHOOD STIGMAS WITH ADULT LIFE-STYLES

by

Larry G. Martin, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Adult Education
Department of Administrative Leadership
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
P.O. Box 413
Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201

Abstract

Adult literacy research efforts have established a clear relationship between the psychosocial self-perceptions of adult high school noncompleters (AHSN-Cs) and their abilities to benefit from literacy programs. However, this research has not systematically addressed the question of why or how AHSN-Cs derived the psychosocial perceptions they hold. This study analyzed the retrospective self-reported preadulthood (i.e., ages 0 to 18) deviant and stigmatizing experiences of 79 AHSN-Cs in an effort to: (1) provide insight into the originating sources of negative psychosocial self-perceptions, and (2) determine if the types and frequencies of stigmatizing experiences were associated with the adult life-styles (i.e., Employed, Unemployed, and Underclass) of the subjects. Through a content analysis of biographical data, three broad categories of stigmatizing events and environments were identified: parents' marital status; experiences occurring in the family and home environemnt; and those occurring outside the home setting. A chi-square analysis of the data revealed that the subjects categorized into the three adult life-styles experienced significant differences in their preadulthood experiences with four types of devant and stigmatizing experiences.

THE CREATION OF DEVIANCE AMONG ADULT HIGH SCHOOL NONCOMPLETERS: RELATIONSHIP OF PREADULTHOOD STIGMAS WITH ADULT LIFE-STYLES

PROBLEM

Adult literacy research efforts have established a clear relationship between the psychosocial perceptions of adult high school noncompleters (AHSN-Cs) and their abilities to benefit from literacy programs. For example, Wilson (1980) found that dropouts from the literacy programs in his study described themselves as more rebellious, hostile, and less socialized, while being more impulsive, headstrong, and irresponsible than those who persisted in the programs. However, such research has not systematically addressed the question of why or how AHSN-Cs derived the psychosocial perceptions they hold. Both "deviance" and "stigma" are concepts that may help to provide insight into the originating sources of the psychosocial perceptions held by many AHSN-Cs.

Deviance and Stigma

Deviance represents behaviors and (or) attributes that differentiate certain individuals from normative expectations in social interpersonal situations (Becker, 1973). The condition of deviance results from breaking various types of socially accepted rules and conventions, e.g., murder, alcohol abuse, illicit drug use, unemployment, illiteracy, etc. Stigmas are discrediting marks, such as abominations of the body, blemishes of individual character, and tribal identities, e.g., race, religious and (or) ethnic affiliations which help to mark deviant individuals (Goffman, 1963). Stigma is a means of social control that entails the interpretation and labelling of deviance by others, (e.g., the criminal justice system, schools, employers, etc.) and the subsequent application of punitive sanctions, (e.g., incarceration, expulsion from school, denial of employment, etc.) on the marked individual. Often negative labels (e.g., exconvict, school drop-out, exmental patient, jail bird, and others) continue to be applied to the identity of such individuals even after their atonement and (or) release from societal institutions.

The consequence of being stigmatized is that an individual who could have been received in ordinary social intercourse, possesses a trait that can obtrude itself upon attention and turn the people he/she meets away, thereby breaking the claim that his/her other attributes may have on the perceiver (Goffman, 1963). It is when the stigmatized individual accepts the wider beliefs of society that the stigma affects self-esteem. By incorporating these standards, stigmatized individuals acquire the sense of what constitutes a "normal person", while simultaneously perceiving that others do not accept them as being "normal". This perception of non-normalness and other's non-acceptance can result in believing that they are less than

normal.

Persons who do not possess a high school diploma or lack literacy skills are often denied employment and in interactions with the wider society their other attributes are often overshadowed by their primary identity of being an AHSN-C. Although the literature suggests that AHSN-Cs are a stigmatized population and that they often possess negative psychosocial characteristics it has not explored the possibility that their adult life-styles are associated with preadulthood stigmatizing experiences.

METHODOLOGY

This research analyzes the retrospective self-reported deviant and stigmatizing experiences of 79 AHSN-Cs interviewed by Martin (1985). The larger study took fifteen months to complete and entailed conducting two- to three-hour, tape-recorded interviews with a diverse group of subjects. The data were collected from persons living in three U.S. locations: a large Midwestern metropolis of over six million people; a mid-sized Southeastern city of 160,000 people; and several rural Southeastern communities of less than 5,000 persons. The interviewees were recruited from many diverse settings including ABE/GED programs, social service agencies, employment settings, street corners, and homes. Interviewees were asked to address a series of questions regarding their: childhood, schooling, adolescence, young adulthood, family background, current family, employment history, life crises, etc.

For the purposes of this study, a content analysis was made of the data detailing each subjects' preadulthood (age 0 to 18) life experiences. Utterances indicating experiences with stigmatizing events and environments were recorded and later categorized by this researcher.

A Typology of Life-Style Classifications

Utilizing each subject's "primary means of financial support" and "the degree of socially acceptable behavior" Martin (1985) identified six broad life-style classifications: Entreprenuers, owners of private businesses; Superiors, managers of businesses or organizations; Regulars, employees in skilled or semi-skilled jobs; Suppliants, individuals with an indirect means of financial support, e.g., a spouse, parents, unemployment compensation, etc.; Marginals, recipients of public assistance; and Underclass, individuals who had consistently engaged in anti-social acts. Three categories of Underclass were identified: Underclass-Regulars, Underclass-Suppliants, and Underclass-Marginals.

Research Questions

This study explored the association of preadulthood stigmatizing experiences with the above life-style classifications of AHSN-Cs. Several research questions were addressed:

1. What were the types and frequencies of stigmatizing events and

environments experienced by the subjects during ages 0 to 18?
2. What salient differences exist among the different classifications of AHSN-Cs in terms of the types and frequencies of stigmatizing events and environments experienced during ages 0 to 18?

FINDINGS

A content analysis of the life-histories of the subjects was conducted to identify the types and frequencies of stigmatizing events and environments they experienced during ages 0 to 18. This analysis revealed three categories of stigmatizing events and environments: parents' marital status; experiences occurring in the family and home environment; those occurring outside the home setting.

Parents' Marital Status

A disproportionately large percentage (78.5%) of the subjects mentioned that they grew up in homes in which their parents experienced marital upset or were never married. Only 21.5 percent lived in homes in which their parents remained married until they reached age 18. The proportions were equal (30.4%) for those whose parents were either divorced or widowed. Smaller proportions (11.4% and 6.3%) grew up in homes where their parents were either never married or had permanently separated.

Family Home Situation

The subjects reported three types of stigmatizing experiences or events that occurred in their homes and(or) involved members of their family:
1. Abusive Parents (35.4%). The subjects mentioned four categories of statements which were coded as "abusive parents": (a) one or both parents often drank alcohol, (b) parents argued and fought often, (c) parents or relatives beat them or physically abused them, (d) one or both parents neglected them by abandonment and(or) failed to provide financial support.
2. Disabled Family Member (10.1%). The subjects indicated the presence of one or more mentally or physically disabled family members in the home.
3. Being Poor (13.9%). The subjects mentioned "hard times", being "poor", having "nothing to wear", and similar utterances.

Experiences Outside the Home

The subjects were involved in five types of stigmatizing experiences that occurred outside their homes:
1. Drug and(or) Alcohol Usage (6.3%). Subjects mentioned that they used illicit drugs, e.g., marijuana, valium, cocaine, and others, and(or) consumed excessive amounts of alcohol.
2. Prolonged Illness and(or) Physical Abominations (15.2%). Subjects mentioned prolonged illness, e.g., asthma, agoraphobia, physical injury requiring hospitalization, and(or) physical abominations, e.g., severe skin infection.
3. Teenage Pregnancy and(or) Marriage (21.5%). Subjects mentioned becoming unwed teenage mothers, marrying before age 18,

or both marriage and pregnancy before age 18.
4. Involvement with Gang Violence and(or) Crime (12.7%). Subjects mentioned joining youth gangs, being victims of gangs, and(or) committing criminal acts, e.g., stealing, strong-arm robbery, etc.
5. Academic Difficulty (39.2%). Subjects mentioned being "slow learners", failing courses, being expelled from school, lacking credits for graduation, involved in physical or emotional conflicts with teachers or administrators, and(or) having excessive absence from school.

Individuals mentioning experiences with any of the above types of stigma were given a coded value of one per experience with each type. Chi-square tests were conducted on the data to determine the presence or absence of the different types of preadulthood stigmatizing experiences in the lives of individuals categorized into one of the life-style classifications of AHSN-Cs. For the purpose of this analysis, the six categories were collasped into three broader, more theoretically significant categories: the Entreprenuers, Superiors, and Regulars were combined into a single category (Employed, N = 20); Suppliants and Marginals were combined into another category (Unemployed, N = 50); and the different types of Underclass, N = 9, constituted the third category.

Significant differences were found to exist in four of the nine types of stigmatizing experiences and events mentioned by the subjects. The Underclass (66.7%) were most likely to have mentioned having abusive parents, compared with 36 percent of the Unemployed and 20 percent of the Employed ($X = 5.93$, $df = 2$, $P < .10$). The Underclass (33.3%) were most likely to mention using illicit drugs and(or) excessive alcohol consumption, compared to 4 percent of the Unemployed and none of the Employed ($X = 12.88$, $df = 2$, $P < .0016$). The Unemployed (30%) were most likely to mention teenage pregnancy and(or) marriage, compared to 11.1 percent of the Underclass and 5 percent of the Employed ($X = 5.94$, $df = 2$, $P < .051$). The Underclass (44.4%) were most likely to mention involvement with youth gangs and(or) crime, compared to 15 percent of the Employed and 6 percent of the Unemployed ($X = 10.33$, $df = 2$, $P < .0057$).

One-way analysis of variance was conducted on the data to determine the extent to which the three collasped categories of life-style classifications of AHSN-Cs explained the differences in the types of stigmatizing experiences encountered by the subjects. The analysis suggests that the life-style classifications explained 7.6 percent of the variance in the parent abuse experienced by 43 percent of the sample ($F = 3.142$, $df = 2/76$, $P < .05$). The classifications explained 6.7 percent of the variance in the drug and(or) alcohol use experienced by 9 percent of the sample ($F = 2.747$, $df = 2/76$, $P < .10$). Also the classifications explained 7.4 percent of the variance in the teenage pregnancy and(or) marriage mentioned by 23 percent of the sample ($F = 3.046$, $df = 2/76$, $P < .10$). Finally, the classifications explained 16.4 percent of the variance in the gang violence and(or) crime mentioned by 14 percent of the subjects ($F = 7.432$, $df = 2/76$, $P < .001$).

DISCUSSION

The study suggests that the extent to which the subjects experienced abusive parents was the primary underlying variable associated with their adult life-styles. It appears that many of the deviant activities the subjects engaged in during preadulthood became central characteristics of their adult life-styles. This observation suggests that the problem of stigma among AHSN-Cs is not only a result of adulthood behaviors but also results from a pattern of deviant activities and societal responses that have deeply affected the adult psychosocial identities of many subjects, i.e., stigma is both cause and consequence of being an AHSN-C. The Underclass seems to have reacted to the violence of their parents by projecting their rage both outward and inward as teenages, e.g., joining youth gangs, engaging in crime, illicit drug use, and excessive alcohol consumption. As adults the Underclass was more likely to have been incarcerated in jail and (or) prison for involvements in crime, illicit drug use, alcohol abuse, and others (Martin, 1985). The Unemployed seems to have reacted to their abusive parents by projecting their rage inward, i.e., by engaging in sexual activities that resulted in unplanned pregnancies or by teenage marriage. As adults the Unemployed were more likely to be current or previous recipients of public assistance, and (or) to rely on a spouse, parents, unemployment compensation, relatives, siblings or others as their primary means of financial support. Many of the Underclass and the Unemployed appear to have developed a "stigma identity", i.e., a personal identity based primarily on the characteristics attributed to them by the wider society. The Employed appears to have experienced less abuse from their parents and were better able to overcome the limitations of their childhood experiences. As adults they managed to obtain job skills and employment and seem to have escaped the development of a "stigma identity".

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"Returning Adult Women Students: What Are Their Special Needs?"

Karen E. Muench, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor, Capital University/Dayton Center
University Without Walls Program
Adult Degree Completion Program
Miami Valley Tower
40 West Fourth Street, Suite 2122
Dayton, Ohio 45402

ABSTRACT

Three hypotheses were developed to test the conjecture that women reenter higher education to rework their ego identity. The first hypothesis asserted a relationship between a positive ego development and the reworking of identity. Results corroborated Hypothesis I ($p \leq .05$). Hypothesis II posited a relationship between a woman's commitment to the perceived psychosocial changes universities attempt to facilitate and the reworking of identity. This hypothesis was not sustained. Hypothesis III tested the relationship between the presence of a supportive significant other and the reworking of identity. Findings failed to show a statistically significant relationship.

Twenty-three of the twenty-six women in the sample perceived themselves as negatively resolving one or more of Erikson's first four ego stages. This finding was unexpected because not only had these women more education than the general public but they also had shown a good deal of initiative in furthering their own development. Post hoc analyses were therefore conducted to determine if a generally positive ego profile was related to the reworking of identity. Issues of autonomy and guilt were found to have a significant role in the reworking of identity. Further research should be conducted exploring these two variables: autonomy and guilt.

RETURNING ADULT WOMEN STUDENTS: WHAT ARE THEIR SPECIAL NEEDS?

The number of adult students, particularly women, returning to university and college campuses has dramatically increased in the last fifteen years. Many studies have been done to examine both why women return to higher education and what kinds of barriers they experience upon arrival. Few studies, however, have related this phenomenon to a developmental psychological conceptual framework. This study examined the possibility of the reworking of identity in women as they returned to higher education. It employed as its basis Erik Erikson's epigenetic theory which views the development of the individual over the life cycle.

This research investigated the conjecture that reentry women who had positively resolved Erikson's first four ego stages, were committed to the psychosocial changes the university attempts to bring about and had a supportive significant other, used the educational experience to rework identity.

The following three hypotheses were tested: 1) Women who had positively resolved ego stages one through four in Erikson's epigenetic theory would demonstrate a significantly greater frequency of wanting to rework identity than women who had not positively resolved ego stages one through four. 2) Women who were committed to the psychosocial changes that the university attempted to bring about would demonstrate a significantly greater frequency of wanting to rework identity than women who were not committed to the psychosocial changes the university attempted to bring about. 3) Women who had a supportive significant other would demonstrate a significantly greater frequency of wanting to rework identity than women who did not have a supportive significant other. Hypothesis I was corroborated. Hypotheses II and III were not sustained.

Twenty-six women enrolled at the University of Wisconsin-Madison constituted the sample. Subjects were administered four research instruments: A Demographic Questionnaire, a Self-Description Questionnaire, a Project Q-Sort and a Taped Interview. The Demographic Questionnaire gathered data on two variables, significant others in the participant's life, and relevant descriptive characteristics of the sample. The Self-Description Questionnaire (Boyd, 1969) was employed to determine whether or not a women had positively resolved the first four ego stages of Erikson's epigenetic theory. The Project Q-Sort determined whether or not women were actively reworking identity. The Taped Interview determined whether or not women were committed to the psychosocial changes the university attempts to bring about.

Chi square analysis indicated that knowing if a woman had positively resolved Erikson's first four ego stages would better predict whether or not she would want to rework identity. Only three of the 26 women, however, had positively resolved Erikson's first four ego stages. Post hoc analyses were conducted to determine if there was a relationship between the resolution of one or more of the

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ego stages and the desire to rework identity for just the 23 women who had not positively resolved Erikson's first four ego stages? The chi square statistic revealed two significant results. In ego stage II (x^2:1, n=23:4.40; $p \leq .05$) a larger number of women manifested shame and doubt than autonomy. In ego stage III, where a significant difference (x^2:1, n=23:10.01; $p \leq .05$) was also found, two important relationships were discovered. Women who wanted to rework identity revealed more guilt while women who did not want to rework identity showed more initiative.

Results clearly indicate that many women reenter higher education with psychosocial (ego identity) problems. If the sample in this study is typical, and there is no reason to believe it is atypical, many reentry women have low levels of trust, feelings of shame and doubt, guilt and inferiority. In view of these findings it is reasonable to conclude that these women undoubtedly experience difficulties in concentrating and therefore in learning when they are in academic settings. These difficulties may even be intensified further in courses where content intersects with these psychosocial factors.

Educators should thus be made aware of the psychosocial concerns of reentry women. Unless educators in their various roles are made aware of the ways reentry women are experiencing the reworking of ego identity resolutions, the educators' interventions and programs will not be as meaningfully instructive as they could be.

Admission officers must be carefully selected and trained to work with reentry women, as such staff are now trained to work with young adults entering the university for the first time. The education of these admission officers would include not only information on the unique economic, social and educational backgrounds of older adults but a solid grounding in adult psychosocial development.

University counselors could design workshops to help women become more aware of their own psychosocial needs. Support groups which would meet regularly throughout the academic year could be formed to help women deal with their ongoing psychosocial concerns. The psychosocial problems revealed in this study require long term supportive groups and thus counselors need to do long term planning when designing yearly programs with reentry women.

Professors should be made aware of instructional methods that facilitate learning for the older reentry student. Small study groups and networking have been shown to be valuable techniques. Whenever appropriate, reentry women could be involved in discussions that focus their experiences, knowledge and ideas on the course topics. Lectures are a rich source of information but they can not provide the integration that discussions provide. It is integrative learning which will be of most worth to women reworking their identities.

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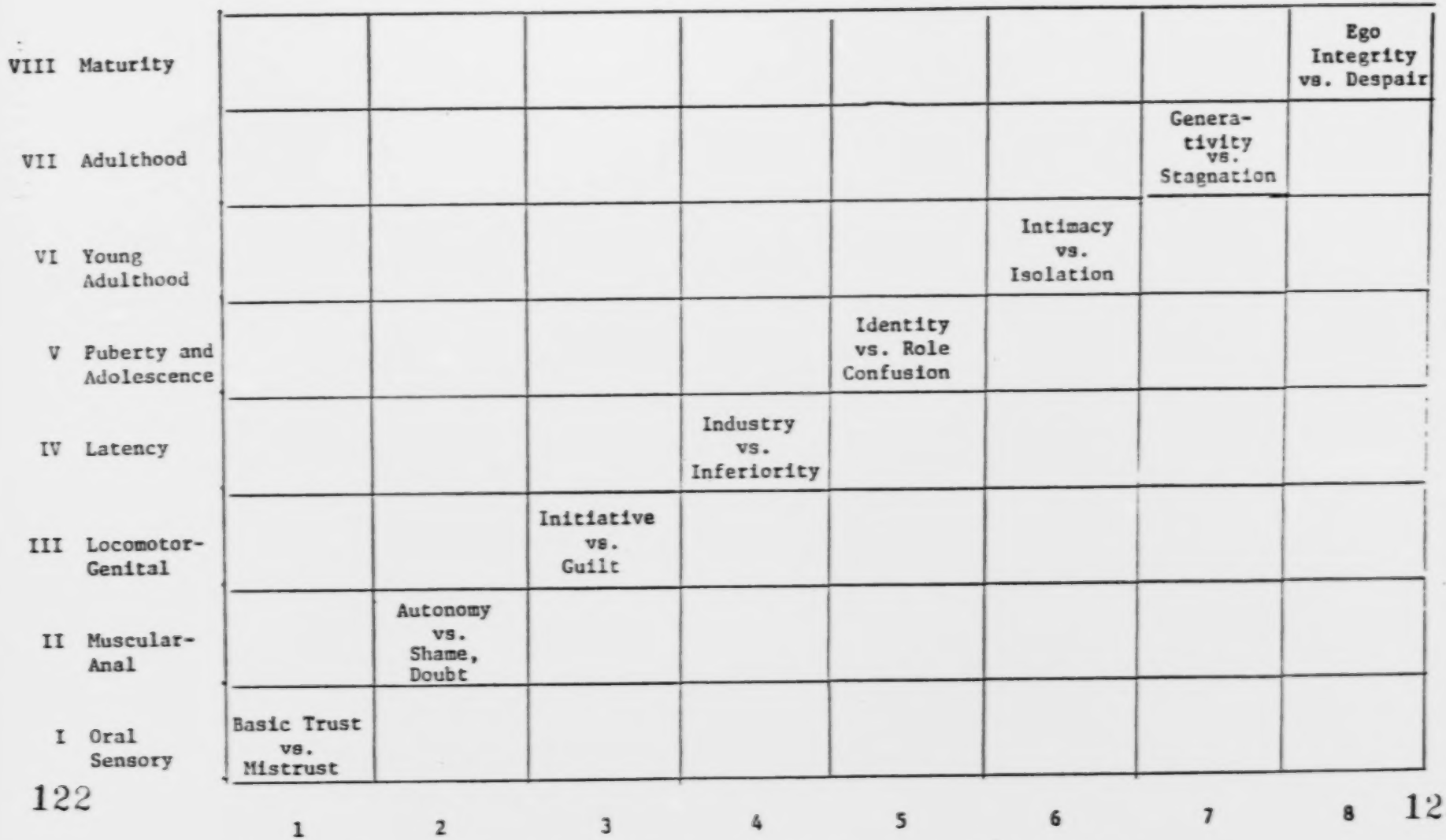

FIGURE 1. Erikson's "Eight Ages of Man". (From Childhood and Society, 1963.)

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THE MEASUREMENT OF LEARNING STYLE: A CRITIQUE OF FOUR ASSESSMENT TOOLS WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Timothy J. Sewell
Director, Educational Testing Center
University of Wisconsin-Green Bay

and

Chere Campbell Coggins
Assistant Professor, Continuing and Vocational Education
University of Wisconsin-Madison/Extension

Abstract

Educators, looking for a "scientific" way to determine how learners learn best, have turned to learning style theory to provide a better match between how a person best gains knowledge and the methods used to impart that knowledge. One critical issue to be addressed is whether the four most frequently used learning style assessment tools (based on frequency of citation in the adult education literaure) are of sufficient psychometric quality to warrant their continued use either for research or educational purposes. The instruments under consideration were developed by the following individuals: Myers and Briggs, 1962; Canfield and Lafferty, 1974; Kolb, 1978; and Gregorc, 1978. Specific areas of consideration included: content of instrument; format, scoring; reliability and validity with a focus on the similarities and dissimilarities, strengths and weaknesses, among and between learning style instruments. It was concluded that significant measurement and related technical problems were present in all instruments reviewed. More specifically, none of the instruments have established an appropriate normative base for valid interpretation of scores; there appears to be an incomplete development of many of the theoretical constructs underlying the instruments reviewed: Alpha coefficients reported suggest that the scores produced by these instruments may not be reliable indicators of learning style preference; and ipsative scores produced by these instruments may influence the results of many validity studies. Suggestions for future research conclude the paper.

THE MEASUREMENT OF LEARNING STYLE: A CRITIQUE OF FOUR ASSESSMENT TOOLS WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

For some time, educators have recognized that learners have different ways of collecting and organizing information into useful knowledge. Correspondingly, not everyone can benefit to the same extent from the same method of instruction. One way educators have found to address the problem of multi-method learning has been to "individualize instruction" - buzzwords for educators at all academic levels who are concerned with tailoring instructional approaches to the needs, interests, and skill levels of the learner. Recently, educators, looking for a "scientific" way to determine how learners learn best, have turned to learning style theory to provide a better match between how a person best gains knowledge and the methods used to impart that knowledge.

Defined as "characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how leraners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment" (Keefe, 1979), the concept of learning styles has created a great deal of interest. The measurement of learning styles and the educational application of learning style information is a relatively recent educational phenomenon. In fact there is still a lack of concensus regarding some basic issues pertaining to learning style. For example, how can learning style best be defined? What is the most appropriate way to measure learning styles? What are the basic components of learning style?

One critical issue to be addressed is whether four of the learning style instruments most frequently used (based on frequency of citation in the adult education literature) are of sufficient psychometric quality to warrant their continued use for research and/or educational purposes. More specifically, to what extent do the tests measure what they are intended to measure? Are the results consistent across time? How are the scores derived? Does the standardization sample adequately represent adult student populations? Is sufficient information provided by the publisher to judge the quality of the instruments? The instruments under consideration include those developed by the following individuals: Meyers and Briggs, 1962; Canfield and Lafferty, 1974; Kolb, 1978; and Gregorc, 1978. A closer examination resulted in the following findings.

Content, Format and Scoring

As one reviews the four instruments in question with regards to content, format and scoring, it is obvious that the instruments characterize several different theoretical orientations and measure a variety of dimensions typically associated with the learning style concept. In addition, the content of each instrument is different and there appears to be very little overlapping of the dimensions measured. They do, however, have several features in common.

First, all the instruments are designed to be a self-report measure of learning style. Respondents are asked to indicate or rank their choices by indicating what appeals to them the most. The Myers-Briggs requires

respondents to choose between 126 pairs of statements (actually seven items have three options and one has four). The Canfield Learning Style Inventory (LSI) has 30 items, each with four options, which individuals are asked to rank. The Kolb LSI and Gregorc instruments require respondents to rank sets of four words including verbs and nouns.

Second, the scoring of these measures mainly consists of summing the rankings obtained for each item which comprises a particular scale. The Kolb, Canfield and Gregorc instruments are designed to be self-scoring while in most instances it is more efficient to have someone other than the respondent score the Myers-Briggs. In addition to raw scores, only percentile scores are generated from an individual's responses. None of the instruments provide standardized scores.

It is also important to note that all instruments reviewed employed ipsative scores, that is, the strength of each learning style category is expressed, not in absolute terms, but in relation to the strength of the respondent's other learning style preferences. Therefore, the proper frame of reference is the individual rather than the normative sample.

Third, the instruments are also similar in the techniques used for identifying the respondent's learning style profile. Each instrument allows the respondent to plot his/her results on a chart which will identify predominant learning style preferences. Three of the scales use bipolar dimensions which allow individuals to be placed in a specific type category. The Myers-Briggs yields 16 possible learning style types. The Kolb LSI and Gregorc's Style Delineator identifies four possible categorical areas. The Canfield yields 20 scale scores within four general categories.

Reliability

Studies which have investigated the reliability of the instruments usually report either test-retest or internal consistency coefficients. In general, the test-retest reliabilities for the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) are satisfactory although less than optimal for a test of personality traits (Anastasi, 1968). No information reporting test-retest reliabilities for the Kolb LSI could be found in the professional literature. Coefficients reported by Kolb (1978) generally range from the low 40's to the high 70's suggesting that the scores are less stable than the Myers-Briggs.

No test-retest information could be found for the Canfield LSI and only one study, conducted by Gregorc (1984), was found in the Delineator's technical manual. Considering the very limited amount of information it appears that no firm conclusions could be drawn regarding the stability of the scores produced by these instruments.

External consistency reliability coefficients for all four instruments were also very limited. In most instances the split-half and Alpha coefficients which were reported fell in the 60's and 70's. These estimates which are lower than desireable (Anastasi, 1968), suggest a moderate to low amount of internal consistency.

Validity

Construct validity was the most frequently discussed type of validity. Studies of one type or another were reported for all of the instruments and several different methods were used. For example, studies using the MBTI and the Kolb's LSI correlated scores with individual's educational specialization, career choice and current job. In addition, the Kolb LSI has been used a great deal in predicting career choice in medical and business settings. Scores from the Kolb LSI and the MBTI have also been used in several factor analytic studies, and in some instance, have been compared with scores from instruments that measure similar dimensions or constructs.

In general, the data provide equivocal support for the validity of these instruments. However, in some instances, studies which used the Myers-Briggs did result in a relatively acceptable degree of construct validity. Most of the studies cited by Kolb (1976) had weak methodology and poorly defined research samples. The limited amount of validity information provided for the Canfield LSI and Gregorc's Delineator was so limited and methodologically flawed that no firm conclusions could be drawn from the information provided.

Conclusions

To anyone familiar with the field of adult education, it is obvious that there is a growing number of instruments available for assessing learning style, reflecting in part the strong desire of adult educators to meet the needs of a very diverse group of learners. Proponents of the learning style concept feel that learning style is a viable concept with important implications for both adult educators and learners. These implications include the possibility of achieving a better understanding of oneself as a learner and help with facilitiating the learning of others.

At the present time learning style instruments are being used to facilitate career planning, diagnose learrning difficulties, and make decisions about teaching and helping people learn. Since results may influence students' career plans or attitudes toward learning, it seems particularly important to pay more serious attention to the psychometric quality of the instruments being used. Poor quality learning style instruments could be generating data that are weak or misleading. As Freeman and Stumpf (1978) aptly point out, "Measurement error remains measurement error no matter how effectively an exercise or instrument is applied within a class."

It seems apparent that there are significant measurement and technical problems present in all of the the instruments reviewed. First, none of the instruments have established an appropriate normative base for the valid interpretation of scores. At the very least, each of these neasures should have a well defined sample of adult continuing education students including percentile distributions by sex and age. Without these reference points any interpretation of scores becomes highly suspect.

Secondly, there appears to be an imcomplete development of many of the theoretical constructs underlying the instruments reviewed. Evidence supporting the construct validity of the Myers-Briggs is minimal and practically non-existent for the Kolb LSI, the Canfield LSI and the Gregorc

Style Delineator. The few factor analytic studies which were completed with the MBTI, the Kolb LSI, and the Canfiled LSI vary in the degree of their support for the constructs which are supposed to be measured. This suggests either there is a problem with the construction of the instrument or the learning style paradigm is lacking. Therefore studies which contribute to the construct or predictive validation of these instruemtns are sorely needed.

Third, estimates of reliability suggest that learning style preferences are somewhat unstable, even for relatively short periods of time. Nevertheless, it could be argued that the dynamic nature of learning style make test-retest reliability coefficients unnecessary and that a greater emphasis should be placed on the homogeneity of the instrument from a single administration. However, in general, the reported Alpha coefficients, which measure this characteristic, also suggest that the scores produced may not be reliable indicators of learning style preference.

Finally, the ipsative scores produced by these instruments appear to be influencing many of the validity studies which appear in the literature. Factor analytic studies, in particular, strongly suggest that the construct validity of the bipolar conceptualizations of learning styles are artificially supported by this type of ranking procedure. As a result, studies which produce normative scores from the same items or newly developed may provide stronger validity for the scale. In addition, providing a normative basis for the scale may also make the interpretation of the results easier. The combination of normative and ipsative frames of reference currently provided in the test manuals makes the interpretation of the scores very difficult and less meaningful than would be the case with a consistently ipsative or normative approach.

Suggestions for Future Research

Despite the criticisms and difficulties described above, serious consideration should continue to be given the measurement of the learning style construct. A large number of questions concerning the assessment of learning styles require further attention. Among these it is suggested that future research look into the following areas of inquiry.

1. Little research, using these four instruments has assessed the relationship between actual learning and either learning styles or preferences for particular instructional techniques. Research related to these issues would not only contribute to the existing body of knowledge pertaining to construct validity but would also add to our knowledge of learning style as an instructional tool.

2. Research results to date suggest that no learning style measure by itself provides an adequate basis for an individual to select a career or be counseled to do so. Consequently, future reseach could focus on such questions as: Are different career categories characterized by specific learning style types? Are people whose career and learning style match more successful or satisfied? How much weight should be given to learning style and career choice.?

3. A concerted effort should be made to establish large representative norms for returning adult students. This could include normative samples from groups of credit and noncredit college and university students, distance learners, and individuals engaged in informal learning projects.

4. More information could be gathered relative to the match between learning styles and the environment. This could involve comparing scores with objective measures of achievement, reports by learners on their choice of instructional method, observations of behavior, results from projective tests and reported satisfaction with the instructional environment.

5. Future research could also explore the issue of whether an individual's preferred learning style is modified by the educational environment. For example, do adult students learn better when instruction is adapted to their learning style preferences? Can people be trained to adopt a particular learning style? Do learning styles remain stable over time in adult populations?

It seems apparent that a valid model and measurement device for learning style would be a powerful tool for the facilitation of learning. The specific requirements for the optimal learning style instrument have also been outlined by Grasha (1983) and would: (1) demonstrate internal consistency and test-retest reliability; (2) exhibit construct and predictive validity; (3) produce data that can be translated into instructional practices; (4) produce high degrees of satisfaction among learners placed in environments on the basis of the information it provided; (5) help facilitate learners' ability to use content; and (6) perform its magic in ways that are clearly superior to those possible without it. The authors of the learning style instruments reviewed would surely agree with these criteria. However, while some of the instruments show promise, none of them can claim to have met them all.

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ABSTRACT

Program Evaluation in Adult Education: A Survey of Participants in a University Summer Program

James E. Snoddy, Professor
Adult and Continuing Education
417 Erickson Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan 48824

S. Joseph Levine, Associate Professor
Adult and Continuing Education
421 Erickson Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan 48824

The perceptions of adult educators toward a summer university program are presented in this study. The program involved a number of unique features including a two week intensive format, pre-class assignments, planned out-of-class activities, considerable in-class discussion, and a variety of other features. The study participants were divided into two random groups with each group receiving a separate questionnaire. One questionnaire was identified as specifically pertaining to the summer program and the other was identified as pertaining to the general program of studies in adult and continuing education.

Enrollments in the summer program have grown and the growth is reflected by the number of respondents for each of the three years that were surveyed. While students could enroll for a maximum of four courses per summer, only 11% did so with the greatest number enrolling in only one or two courses. Those aspects of the program which were rated highest had to do with qualities of student involvement/participation while those aspects which dealt with structural elements were rated lowest. Summer term was the preferred term for enrolling in courses with compatibility of work schedules and driving conditions given as the major reasons for this preference. Over 50% of the respondents indicated a life change/transition as a reason for enrolling in courses with career change being the most frequently cited reason for the change/transition.

Program Evaluation in Adult Education: A Survey of Participants in a University Summer Program

James E. Snoddy and S. Joseph Levine
Michigan State University

Purpose

This research investigates the perceptions of adult educators who participated in a unique summer program of graduate studies at Michigan State University. The study was conducted in order to model program evaluation techniques for students of adult and continuing education, to provide data for program planners relative to the maintenance and revision of the unique summer program, and to attempt to substantiate currently accepted understandings of why adults pursue or resume formal learning efforts.

The Summer Program In 1983, the Faculty of the Program of Studies in Adult and Continuing Education at Michigan State University inaugurated a special summer program. Called the Summer Chautauqua Program, there was offered a series of academic courses not available during the regular academic year. These courses were designed for a two week format, instead of the usual five week summer school format, and through the use of pre-class assignments, intensive in-class discussions and a variety of out-of-class activities it was hoped the program would capture some of the spirit of the original Chautauqua that captivated mid-America with community-wide concerns for education and self-improvement.

Research Questions This research sought to provide insight into some of the strengths and weaknesses of the summer program. Specifically, it sought answers to the following questions:

1) What are the enrollment patterns of students in the summer program?
2) Which aspects of the program seem to be the most critical or useful to the program participants?
3) Do students indicate a preference for the term in which they enroll in courses?
4) Are changes and transitions in the lives of program participants a major determinant for their involvement in the program?

Methodology

Data for the study were collected during the winter of 1986.

Population The population for the study consisted of all former participants in the three years that the summer program had been offered. In those cases where a student had attended more than one year, duplication was avoided and the student was only counted once. This yielded a total of 234 subjects for the study.

James E. Snoddy is Professor and S. Joseph Levine is Associate Professor in the Program of Studies in Adult and Continuing Education, College of Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 48824.

Group Assignment The entire population was used for the study. However, a split-half technique was employed whereby each member of the population was randomly assigned to one of two groups - each of which received a different questionnaire.

Instrumentation Two separate questionnaire instruments were developed for assessing the reactions of the two halves of the population. "Instrument A - Chautauqua" clearly stated to the respondent that it was an attempt to follow-up on the summer program experience and asked specific questions about the program. "Instrument B - General" did not in any way identify the summer program and asked more general questions about courses in adult and continuing education at Michigan State University. It allowed the respondent to identify the special summer program if the respondent so desired rather than as a function of the instrument. It was hoped that Instrument A would give specific reactions to the summer program and Instrument B would support the importance of the summer program through unprompted reactions.

Data Analysis Primary data analysis was done through frequency tabulations. Through the use of simple tabulations it was hoped that the data would have more immediate utility to the program planners and would better model procedures that could be used with minimal computer support.

Results

In this section the data are reported from either one of the questionnaire instruments or both instruments aggregated. This is due to the uniqueness of some items on each instrument and the similarity of others. (e.g. "Instrument A - Chautauqua" asked respondents which summer they participated in the Chautauqua program whereas "Instrument B - General" asked respondents which term they preferred to take courses.)

Number of Respondents A total of 134 (52%) of the prior summer program participants completed and returned the questionnaires. It was felt that this number provided a sufficient data base and there was no need for follow-up to prompt additional responses. Of those responding, 63 (47%) completed "Instrument A - Chautauqua" and 71 (53%) completed "Instrument B - General."

Enrollment Patterns Table 1 shows the enrollment patterns indicated by "Instrument A - Chautauqua" respondents. Respondents were asked to indicate the summers in which they enrolled in the special program.

Table 1

Number of Respondents Enrolled by Year(s)

Year(s)	Number
1983	7
1984	10
1985	30
1983 & 84	6
1984 & 85	8
1983 & 85	1
1983, 84, 85	1

The data indicate a considerably larger group of respondents attended the most recent program. There is no doubt an interaction between the recency of program involvement and the willingness to respond to questions about the program. In addition, it is assumed that a greater number of recent program attendees are still involved in academic courses at the University and the summer program is more directly a part of their ongoing academic experience.

The "Instrument A - Chautauqua" respondents were also asked to indicate the number of academic courses for which they were enrolled during each summer program. Table 2 summarizes the responses to this question.

Table 2
Number of Courses Taken by
Respondents by Year of Program

Year Enrolled	Number of Credit Courses Taken				
	1	2	3	4	Totals
1983	4(25%)	7(44%)	1(6%)	4(25%)	16(100%)
1984	12(50%)	11(46%)	0(0%)	1(4%)	24(100%)
1985	18(45%)	14(35%)	4(10%)	4(10%)	40(100%)

During each summer program it was possible for a student to enroll in as many as four separate courses (two courses during each of two sessions). This question attempted to ascertain whether or not the respondents attempted to take full advantage of the maximum number of courses/credits obtainable during the program. Though some students did take the maximum number of courses obtainable, the greatest percentage of students took only one or two courses. This finding is consistent across all three years of the program.

"Instrument A - Chautauqua" respondents were asked to rate ten different aspects of the summer program on a scale of 1 (Low) to 5 (High). Table 3 summarizes these responses.

Table 3
Ratings of Program Aspects

Aspect	Score*
1.Opportunity for student input	4.71
2.Quality of instruction	4.54
3.Involvement with other adult educators	4.49
4.Opportunity for networking	4.21
5.Clarity of course objectives	4.13
6.Clarity of pre-program information	4.08
7.New information, methods, techniques	4.05
8.Pre-class assignments	3.95
9.Outside of class activities	3.93
10.Methods of evaluating student performance	3.90

All aspects received relatively high scores with the lowest aspect receiving a score of 3.90. Of those aspects receiving the highest scores, three of the top four indicate qualities of involvement/participation

* "Score" is derived as an arithmetic mean of the weighted ratings where each rating of "1" receives a score of "1", each rating of "2" receives a score of "2", etc.

(opportunity for student input, involvement with other adult educators, opportunity for networking). The three lowest scores were for structural aspects of the summer program (pre-class assignments, out of class activities, methods of evaluating performance).

"Instrument B - General" respondents were asked to indicate the term or terms during which they preferred to take adult and continuing education courses. Table 4 summarizes these responses.

Table 4
Term Preference for Enrollment in Courses

Term Preferred	Number Indicating Preference
Summer	47 (34%)
Fall	33 (24%)
Spring	30 (22%)
Winter	17 (12%)
No preference	11 (8%)
Omit	1 (.07%)
TOTAL	139 (100%)

As can be expected, Winter term with the potential for bad weather, received the lowest preference. This is due in large part to the great number of respondents who are not resident on the campus but must drive a distance to take courses. The term of greatest preference was summer term. Table 5 shows groupings of reasons that "Instrument B - General" respondents gave to support their term preference.

Table 5
Reasons Given for Term Preferences for Course Enrollment

Number Responding	Category
22(25%)	Compatability with WORK SCHEDULE
20(23%)	Better DRIVING CONDITIONS/WEATHER CONDITIONS
10(11%)	Availability of PERSONAL TIME to devote to study
5(6%)	TIME EFFICIENCY as related to length of course
4(5%)	The term that was SET ASIDE for PERSONAL RENEWAL/STUDY
3(3%)	Availability of courses at PREFERRED TIME OF DAY
3(3%)	Nature of the courses in the SUMMER PROGRAM
2(2%)	Availability of SPECIFIC COURSES
3(3%)	Other reasons
16(18%)	Response not applicable ("Trying to finish course work")
88(99%)	TOTAL

The data in Table 5 further support and clarify the data in Table 4. As can be expected, DRIVING CONDITIONS/WEATHER CONDITIONS received a large number of responses (23%). The category receiving the most responses (25%) was "Compatibility with WORK SCHEDULE" which supports the part time nature of the students that participate in the program and the preference for summer courses when work leaves can be coordinated with academic schedules. In addition, two categories (TIME EFFICIENCY and SUMMER PROGRAM) directly support the summer program though the respondents were not prompted. Obviously other categories could also be supportive of the summer program, but additional information would have to be collected from the respondents.

Both "Instrument A - Chautauqua" and "Instrument B - General" respondents were asked to indicate if one reason for enrolling in courses in adult and continuing education was to assist in some change/transition in their lives. Thirty (52.4%) of the "Instrument A - Chautauqua" respondents indicated "YES" and 37 (53.6%) of the "Instrument B - General" respondents indicated "YES." Those respondents that indicated "YES" were asked to describe the changes/transitions. The categorization of their responses is shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Life Changes/Transitions Indicated as
Reasons for Enrolling in Courses

Reason	A Respondents	B Respondents	Combined
1.Career changes	27 (85%)	32 (76%)	59 (80%)
2.Personal life changes			
a.Family/Parent Role	2 (6%)	2 (5%)	4 (5%)
b.Marriage/Divorce	1 (3%)	1 (2%)	2 (3%)
c.Change residence	-	1 (2%)	1 (1%)
d.Time of life	2 (6%)	6 (14%)	8 (11%)
TOTAL	32 (100%)	42 (99%)	74 (100%)

The data regarding life change/transition as a basis for taking academic courses is very consistent with the literature in adult education. In addition, Table 6 indicates that career changes are by far the greatest change/transition that the respondents see as the basis for their involvement in academic programs. There is little difference seen by those who were prompted to describe their involvement in only the summer program and those respondents not so prompted.

Conclusion This study was undertaken to provide feedback on a unique summer university program offered to adult and continuing education majors. The findings are important for at least two very different reasons. First, the findings underscore the importance for courses of this nature to provide opportunities for students to be involved with the learning. This participatory role is seen through a change/transition motif that embraces over 50% of the respondents, relates to work/career goals, and seems consistent with the reasons why adults generally participate in learning. In addition, the respondents indicated that summer time is the learning time most preferred for enrolling in courses of this nature.

The second reason of importance that underscores the study is the very nature of evaluation itself as a model of appropriate and expected behavior for adult educators. Evaluation often carries a stigma of academic rigor that is not for the use of the ordinary practitioner. This study, simplistic in nature and design, has yielded substantial information in a very controllable manner. It serves as a model for students preparing for roles as adult educators. It is this second reason of importance that initially motivated the study and potentially serves the most viable purpose.

A whole language approach to the teaching of adults: A close look at writing

Rena Soifer and Blair K. Simmons

UAW-Ford/Eastern Michigan University Academy

Ypsilanti, Michigan

Abstract

A whole language approach to the teaching of reading/writing was used to improve the quality of writing of adult students enrolled in a basic skills program. Improvement was measured using a qualitative writing assessment examining authenticity, focus and language.

A whole language approach to the teaching of adults: A close look at writing

The assessment of writing has traditionally focused on mechanical skills as the ability to punctuate, capitalize and use correct grammatical structure (Wilkinson, Barnsley, Hanna, & Swan, 1983). Few assessments exist that will also assess the writer's ability to develop authenticity or to focus on one topic primarily because writing has been taught as a set of skills.

In the late 1970s researchers began to look at the connection between reading and writing. Moffett and Wagner (1983) write that language is not a subject (in school) but an essential part of everyone's life. Graves and Hansen (1983) have found that " Somehow, readers who are also writers develop a sense of authorship that helps them in either composing process" (pg. 182). Considerable attention has been directed to the connections and similarities found in the cognitive processes which underlie reading, writing, speaking and listening. Kenneth and Yetta Goodman (1977) have emphasized that all of these actions consist of the cognitive processing of language and constructing meaning.

The UAW-Ford/EMU Academy (The Academy) supports the theory of utilizing a whole language approach in the teaching of writing, reading, speaking and listening. The purpose of this study is to measure the affects of this method on the quality of writing of adult learners.

Method

Subjects

The Academy, a basic skills program located in an automobile plant, offers instruction to all hourly workers. The classes meet for one and one half hours two times per week for an eight week period (twenty-four hours of instruction). The employees attend classes voluntarily, often after working ten to twelve hour shifts. Class size varies from one to one instruction to 6 students in a group.

Instruction

The integration of reading and writing in The Academy classes attempts to overcome the cognitive and social dynamics that have resulted in both a lack of and incoherent writing. We hope to improve the learning of students' language skills by expanding awareness and help them control and monitor their own processing. Writing is viewed as a process of transferring thoughts into words that give meaning. The beginning point is the student's language, experiences and knowledge. Motivation is triggered from the discussion which follows

the use of high-interest, provocative stimuli.

A stimulus could be a short story, a news article, a poem, picture, cartoon, short film or dialogue with a significant person such as a political leader. The group is used as both audience and critic. Emphasis is placed on purpose and authenticity by reinforcing William Zinsser's (1976) idea of writing as a personal transaction. The instructor makes this possible through a supportive and caring environment. The need for clarity and revision are structured in through an individual writing collection, contributions to shared volumes for everyone's use, through letter writing and contributions to outside journals.

All grammar, spelling, vocabulary and mechanics are taught through use of each student's writing at individual meetings. The focus is on making sense of the written word.

Procedure

In April 1986 The Academy adopted a writing assessment currently being used by Ann Arbor Public Schools K-12 program (located in Ann Arbor, Michigan). The assessment examines three aspects of writing: 1) The ability of the writer to engage the reader and reflect their emotional/intellectual involvement (authenticity) 2) The ability to develop or focus on one main idea (focus) 3) The ability to use sentence mechanics and language (language).

Two raters are being used for the project. Both raters participated in a preliminary practice exercise to gain familiarity with the rating scale. Each rater individually scored seven first writings (on a variety of topics) of students enrolled in the basic skills program. The raters then met to discuss scores, decide on guidelines, answer questions regarding the criteria and discuss semantics.

The scoring for both raters was consistent. Both raters felt they had developed a better understanding of the guidelines. When differences in scoring occurred, an average of the two scores was taken because of the realization that writing is an individual process with no one true score.

The assessment process includes five steps.

Step one. The language skills staff members confer and decide on a topic and a pre-writing stimulus. The stimulus for the April 1986 testing period was the issue of unfairness.

Step two. At the first class meeting of each new session the pre-test is administered. The class begins with the pre-writing stimulus. An editorial on the Vietnam War (centering on the unfairness of death) combined with a picture of the Vietnam Memorial was chosen.

Step three. A discussion follows the stimulus activity. Here the instructor encourages each student to share their reactions and question themselves and others in the group. The students are prompted to think in terms of the question "Why do you think -------?"

For the April 1986 pre-test, a discussion was initiated

concerning the author's response to unfairness, then the students were asked to focus on a more personal aspect. The students were prompted in discussion to answer the question "Why do you think (their personal reaction) was/is unfair?"

Step four. Lastly, the students are asked to write their thoughts. They are given 30 minutes to complete their writing unaided. The writings are turned in to the instructor.

Step five. The writings are then duplicated, names are removed, papers are numbered and filed. After completion of 48 hours of instruction this process will be repeated.

When pre and post test data is collected, all papers will be rated concurrently.

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ABSTRACT PAGE

Manuscript title: Is To Know To Do?

Author: Sara M. Steele

Affiliation: Professor
Department of Continuing and Vocational Education
University of Wisconsin-Madison
Madison, WI 53706

Abstract:

From four Wisconsin counties, 118 farmers who tested forage in 1984 responded to a mailed questionnaire which included a test of understanding of new technical terms, questions about action taken based on that knowledge, attitude toward value of using test results, information sources and background and experience related to forage testing. Chi square and descriptive statistics were used in the data analysis.

Major findings:

1. Less than a fourth had high scores on the test even though farmers indicated they had been exposed to the new terms from several sources.

2. Over a fourth had not made any changes based on the new terms. Less than a fifth indicated making 4 or 5 changes.

3. The total number of changes made and changes in four of the five individual practices were associated with the amount of knowledge.

4. However, some with high test scores did not translate those scores into action. Less than half of those with high scores indicated making three or more changes based upon the results of their forage tests.

Conclusion: Increasing understanding of new technical concepts helps achieve action, but does not guarantee that action will occur. Instruction which help's people master the underlying meaning to their own situations, creates belief in the value of the action, and identifies and suggests ways of overcoming barriers to action also is essential.

Is To Know To Do?

Research Question

Is it enough to understand the technical terms which underlie action? Will action occur if people understand?

Importance to Practice of Adult Education

Many fields of adult education are concerned with helping people improve performance. However, often the objectives of such programs focus on knowledge acquisition. It is assumed people who understand will apply that knowledge. Adult education professionals are often discouraged when they see little change in behavior. Researchers need to determine the amount that needs to be understood in order for educators to help clientele move from knowledge to appropriate use of that knowledge.

Previous Findings

Practice adoption and the study of innovation originated in the 1940's in North Central Agricultural Experiment Station research with the work of Ryan and Gross at Iowa; Rogers at Ohio; Linonberger, Missouri; Wilkening, Wisconsin. Education and other fields took it up in the '60's and '70's. Much of the focus has been on the adoption process and factors affecting it. Rice and Rogers (1980) later focused on the concept of reinvention--the degree to which the innovation is changed by adopters to fit their own needs and situations. **Awareness, or general knowledge about a practice, was generally viewed as the first step of practice adoption, but little research has been done on the depth and scope needed before action would be taken.**

A different but related thrust of research was developed in the 1970's which looked at knowledge utilization. Caplan and Rich discuss instrumental utilization which refers to cases in which respondents could cite and document the specific way in which knowledge was being used in decision-making or problem-solving purposes (Larsen, 1980). Zaltman (1979) uses the term positive knowledge to refer to knowledge which involves a specific solution to a problem. Within adult education, Hiemstra (1980) refers to two categories of education traceable to Talcott Parsons and Havighurst--"instrumental" where the goal lies beyond the act of learning and "expressive" where the goal lies within the act of learning. Mezirow (1981) draws from Habermus's three generic categories of knowledge--"work" or the way one controls and manipulates the environment, "practical" or communicative action binding consensual norms, and "emancipatory" or self-knowledge.

Most information can be instrumental, positive, and work; or non-instrumental, non-positive and "practical" depending upon how the learner views the potential for use in his or her own situation.

The Study's Setting

A unique opportunity emerged to examine knowledge acquisition and its affect upon use of practices when agricultural scientists changed the way forage quality was analyzed and explained. Really new terminology was introduced relating to cellular make-up which influenced forage quality--ADF (acid detergent fiber), NDF (neutral detergent fiber), DDM (digestible dry matter), DMI (dry matter intake) was introduced in educational settings during the early 1980's.

Dr. Sara M. Steele, University of Wisconsin--Department of Continuing and Vocational Education, paper prepared for the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Community, and Continuing Education, Ball State University in Muncie, Indiana, October 3-4, 1986.

Methodology

About half of the 272 farmers from three Wisconsin counties who had tested forage during the past year returned questionnaires. Among the respondents, 118 had tested forage during the previous years and were used in the analysis. The findings are not generalizable beyond farmers who test forage and are cooperative in responding to mailed questionnaires. However, they give a good picture of the interaction of knowledge and action for those most responsive of the clientele.

The one-sheet questionnaire included: 13 questions testing the farmers' understanding of the new terminology; five questions about changed action based on test results; three questions about the value of using test results; and questions about farmers' information sources, background and experience with forage testing. Chi square and descriptive statistics were used in the data analysis.

Findings

The major findings were as follows:

1. **Even though farmers indicated they had been exposed to the new terms from several sources, less than a fourth had high scores on the test.**

   - Eighty-five percent of the respondents indicated having heard of the new terms from at least one source. Seventeen percent indicated hearing of them from six or more sources.

   - The most frequently mentioned sources were:

Farm magazines and papers	49%
Feed dealers	43
Forage test van information	35
Extension bulletins	30
County Ag agent	28
Extension newsletter	26

   - A fourth of the respondents had fewer than five correct and about a fourth had eleven or more correct. The average respondent had about half of the questions right (6.5). One in ten didn't have any correct, and 13% had all correct

   - Respondents were more likely to indicate "don't know" than to give an incorrect response. Forty-five percent didn't have any wrong responses. An additional 47% had fewer than six wrong.

   - The average respondent indicated that he/she didn't know the answer to 6.4 questions. Twenty-five percent said they didn't know the answer to nine or more. Thirty-five percent said they thought they knew the answer to all of the questions.

2. **Over half of the farmers utilized information on NDF, ADF, or DDM concentrations in changing tillage or feeding practices. However, only 28% used the information in adjusting at least three of the five practices included in the study.**

   - One farmer in five had not made any changes based on considering NDF, ADF, and DDM concentrations.

   - Less than a fifth indicated making four or five of the changes.

   - Farmers were more likely to have used information on NDF, ADF, or DDM concentrations to make changes in feeding practices rather than in changing forage tillage practices. (Feeding practices had been stressed prior to the introduction of the new terminology.)

3. **Chi square tests indicated that changes in the total number of practices (.000) and changing four of the five specific practices were significantly associated with the test score.**

   - Among those with none right, 26% indicated making at least one change.
     Among those with 6-7 right, 58% indicated making at least one change.
     Among those with 13 right, 93% indicated making at least one change.

   - Thirty-two percent of those with high scores indicated changing the amount of supplementary protein fed as compared with 2% of those with low scores (.000).

     Seventy-nine percent of those with high scores indicated changing the time harvested as compared with 30% of those with low scores (.005).

     Thirty-six percent of those with high scores indicated changing the forage mixture planted as compared with 4% of those with low scores (.005).

     Seventy-five percent of those with high scores indicated changing the amount of supplementary grain fed as compared with 41% of those with low scores (.05).

     Thirty-two percent of those with high scores indicated changing the amount of fertilizer used as compared with 7% of those with low scores (NS).

4. **However, several with high test scores did not translate those scores into action.**

   - Among those with high scores (at least 12 out of 13 questions correct) less than half indicated making three or more changes based upon their forage test.

   - Even among those with high scores, fewer than half used test information to adjust fertilizer, forage mixture planted, and amount of supplementary protein fed.

5. **Several sources of information were significantly related to total score. Two of the significantly related sources involved other farmers. The others involved programs whose main purpose was to educate.**

   - Significantly related: van information (.000), other farmers (.000), forage council (.000), Extension newsletter (.000), agribusiness bulletin (.005), farm magazine (.01), Extension bulletin (.02), Extension news and radio (.02), Extension specialist (.02), Extension meeting (.02), agriculture teacher (.05).

   - No significant relationship: paid consultant, feed dealer, feed dealer meeting, veterinarian.

5. **Fewer sources were related to whether the farmer said he made changes based on considering the concentrations in his forage sample.**

   - Significantly related: Extension bulletin (.01), van information (.02), other farmers (.02), forage council (.02), Extension newsletter (.05).

   - No significant relationship: agribusiness bulletin, paid consultant, Extension specialist, feed dealer, Extension bulletin, feed dealer meeting, Extension meeting, veterinarian, Extension news and radio, agriculture teacher, farm magazine.

6. **The number of times the farmer had tests made was positively related to the score on the test (.001). The number of times a farmer tested was not significantly related to the number of practices changed or to any of the five individual practices examined.**

   - Among those who tested more than five times, 89% had ten or more of the questions right. Among those who tested only once or twice, 24% had ten or more right; 31% had fewer than five questions right.

7. There was some indication that many farmers weren't totally convinced that adjusting forage practices was valuable.

   - o Less than half of the farmers said it was very important to understand NDF's role in improving cattle rations (3% not very, 17% fairly, 20% don't know, 15% no response).
   - o Only about a fifth thought that testing had made a great deal of difference in their rolling herd average and net returns.

Conclusions

1. Increasing understanding of technical concepts helps achieve action, but does not guarantee that action will occur.

2. With new technical information, one source is probably not enough to bring about knowledge and practice change. These farmers indicated hearing about the new terms from several sources and yet had not mastered the information sufficiently to get high scores on the test and to interpret their individual tests in such a way as to change practices.

Applications of findings to practice

This study has underlined three major elements related to how educators help clientele acquire new technical information and put it into practice.

1. Multiple sources of the same education are needed--particularly when information seems very new and very technical.

2. It takes time for clientele to understand the implications of new technical information.

3. Understanding does not necessarily mean action. Clientele have to believe that the action is valuable to them.

This was an especially revealing setting to examine the relationship of knowledge to practice because a specific action was not tied to the knowledge. Based on the NDF, DDM, ADF concentrations the farmers might have gone in several different directions. There was an intermediary step of interpreting the forage test data based on knowledge and then choosing the right action for the field/feeding program at that point in time. Educational sources need to carry clientele through that interpretation process so that clientele can better interpret the test results for their own specific situations.

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AGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF ADULT LEARNER NEEDS IN SELECTED COMMUNITY COLLEGES

by

Carol Parker Thompson, Ph. D.

Community Services Administrative Intern
Adjunct Faculty - Psychology
Muskegon Community College
221 S. Quarterline Road
Muskegon, MI 49442

ABSTRACT

The research question investigated in this study was: Are there differences in perceptions of adult learner needs among student subgroups in economically and demographically differentiated community college service regions in the State of Michigan?

This topic is important to the practice of adult education because: 1) Demographic changes are occurring in this country that are resulting in fewer traditional students and increased enrollment of non-traditional learners in all postsecondary institutions; 2) Adult educators generalize, perhaps erroneously, that students are provided for equally without regard to age; and 3) Demonstrating that there may be differences in needs based on age may help sensitize policy makers to relevant issues for reform.

Data were obtained from questionnaires mailed to a random sample (N=160) of students in three age groups (18-21, 30-44, 60+) in four community colleges in Michigan. Perceptions of the relative importance of adult learner needs were determined from responses on a Likert scale to five conceptual scale categories or "facets" of the college experience: academic survival skills, personal/social development, instructional/curricular patterns, administrative policies, and student support services.

The findings included statistically significant differences ($p = <.05$) among the three age groups in learning needs related to instructional/curricular patterns, administrative policies, and student support services.

The study concludes with recommendations for accomodations to learner needs in the areas of policy issues and perceptions, funding, recruitment, packaging learning opportunities, student support, and public relations.

AGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF ADULT LEARNER NEEDS IN SELECTED COMMUNITY COLLEGES

The explosion in the growth of the older population and the decline in the percentage of younger persons is producing social concern and educational need (Knox, 1977; Parelius, 1979; Covey, 1981). Specific issues related to this concern and of importance to postsecondary education planners can be divided into broad categories--demographic, social, economic, and political issues. Pertinent to these issues are some of the following concerns: equity in the provision of college services to different age groups; lack of discrimination in admissions, job training and placement, financial aid, student activities; and adequate community financial support.

Some adult educators generalize that students are provided for equally without regard to age. To the extent that their attitudes are shaped by the belief that all learners needs are the same, administrative policies and procedures may not vary in accordance with needs based on age. The literature reveals extensive documentation on differences between younger and older learners, in cognitive styles, in pace and performance ability, in critical thinking, and motivation (Thorndike, 1928; McClusky, 1965; Lynch and Chickering, 1984 among others).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine if there were differences, based on age, in student perceptions of adult learner needs in selected community colleges.

Methodology

Research Design

Survey research methods using a mailed questionnaire were used for data collection. To explore differences in students' perceptions a stratified random sample was selected from the student population at four community colleges in Michigan, using the criteria of age and registration in credit-producing courses.

Sample

The sample was restricted to student subgroups at two rural and two urban community colleges. The colleges were chosen because they represent economically and demographically differentiated community college service regions in Michigan. A random sample of 240 names was selected from students in three age categories 18-21, 30-44, and 60+ representing traditional, non-traditional, and older students enrolled in Fall, 1984. One hundred sixty students returned the questionnaire with a response rate of 66.67 per cent.

Instrument

The questionnaire was a modified version of an instrument

developed by Mangano and Corrado (1979) who looked at reentry students. The questions soliticed data relative to student perceptions of the relative importance of adult learner needs. The perceptions were determined from responses on a Likert scale to five conceptual scale categories or "facets" of the college experience: academic survival skills; personal/social development; instructional/curricular patterns; administrative policies, and student support services.

Data Analysis

A number of statistical procedures were employed for the evaluation of the data. Descriptive statistics were used to profile the sample, and describe student characteristics. Simple effects F tests were used to examine the various effects among variables, e.g., whether there were significant differences in student perceptions of need by age subgroup. The statistical model used to test the interaction on perceptions of learner needs was a multivariate analysis of variance, two factor design.

Limitations of the Study

Many factors influence the variables under consideration including: students' perceptions which are presumed to be accurate, but are perceptions of the importance of learner needs and may not reflect actual need, the research design, sample selection, and the research instrument. The relative importance of learner needs may be defined in various ways based on the identity of the respondents, or if adult learners, on the student's current situation.

Results

Demographic Characteristics

Respondents (N=160) were nearly equally divided among the four colleges, and the three age groups (18-21, 30-44, 60+). There were, however, nearly twice as many female as male respondents. More than one-half were married, and not currently employed. Most had completed some college. Nearly one-fifth were already college graduates. More than two-thirds had been in attendance at the college for at least two terms with the majority having taken more than five classes. Only one-fourth, overall, reported that their main reason for attending classes was to get a degree. That figure is somewhat skewed, however, because it includes students over sixty who are attending "to learn a new skill" or "to have something interesting to do". More than one-half of the 18-21 year old , and nearly one-half of the 30-44 year old respondents were attending classes to get a degree.

Test of Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be an interaction between student age group and institution on perceptions of adult learner needs; there would be an age group effect; there would be

an institution effect. Using one-way analysis of variance and multi-variate analysis procedures the following results were obtained: viewing institutions and students in the aggregate, and examining the age group effect on the perceptions of adult learner needs, the data revealed that there were significant differences (at $p = <.05$) based on age in the perceptions of learner needs related to personal/social development, instructional/curricular patterns, administrative policies, and student support services.

An examination of the perceptions of learner needs viewing institutions in the aggregate, and students divided by age groups revealed significant differences (at $p = < .05$) in the perceptions of needs related to instruction, administrative policies, and student support services. A scheffe procedure revealed differences between the younger and older age groups, and the middle and older groups. There appears to be an inverse relationship between the importance of learner needs and the age of the student. The research would appear to show that, for this sample, younger students perceived certain learning needs as relatively more important than older students.

Implications for Practice

Several factors need to be considered in interpreting these results, e.g., the findings may be limiting in the information that they provide relative to meeting the learning needs of adult students. Older students enrolled in adult education programs and in attendance at community colleges are already relatively well-educated (Allan and Brotman, 1981; Thompson, 1986). It appears that they are more resourceful, and have developed skills and resiliency to deal with the bureaucracy with which they are increasingly involved.

It is possible that older students misperceive their own learning needs relative to college services, or may be unaware of contemporary resources available to them which were not part of traditional college experiences. If adult educators accept the perceptions of these older students of college services as being less important than for younger students, they have to be cautious that they do not interpret responses of adult students with previous college experience as being representative of the perceptions of others who have no prior college experience. It may be that adult students enrolled in higher education with previous college experience represent middle-class backgrounds or came from working-class families which placed a high priority on education. Therefore, their perceptions again may not be representative of what is currently described as non-traditional adult learners.

In addition, policymakers may not correctly perceive the needs of adult learners. Based on assumptions about education conferring private versus public benefit, the perception of the policymaker is that effort should be directed more toward the younger student. This misperception is leading toward a pattern of diminished enrollment (John Thompson, President - Muskegon Community College).

Effort must be taken to make policymakers more aware of the changes in demography. As fewer younger students are available, more emphasis needs to be placed on recruiting older learners. If community colleges and adult education delivery systems do not provide the services that adult learners need, other organizations will fill the void. Adult educators may need to examine the premise of public policy that education is to be geared toward basic needs. Many adult learners currently enrolled in postsecondary educational opportunities appear to be interested in higher levels of life satisfaction. Correctly perceiving the learning needs of adult learners presents a challenge, an opportunity, and a potential source of increased revenue.

Recommendations

Recommendations for institutional change to accomodate older learners have been described by Heerman (1980) and others. Suggestions focus on flexibility, convenience, and individualization of instruction. Based on the differences in the perceptions of the relative importance of learning needs demonstrated in this research, several recommendations will be discussed.

Policy Issues and Perceptions

There need to be provisions in public policy and institutional planning efforts for older learners. Included in the policy manual should be a statement advocating accessibility to programs and services to meet the special needs and interests of older students.

Funding

Monies should be made available for grants, scholarships and to increase institutional responsiveness to older learner needs. Serving older learners should be seen as an economic priority.

Recruitment

Recruiters should be sent to places other than high schools. Recruitment should take place at known congregate sites for older learners.

Packaging Learning Opportunities

The configuration, structure, and packaging of learning opportunities need to be examined. Flexible time frames, a restructuring of the learning environment, and the option of designing their own individualized learning programs should be made available to older learners.

Student Support Services

Existing institutional services should be promoted, e.g., job placement and counseling, and new student services created to meet older learner needs.

Public Relations Efforts

The public relations efforts of the institution need to be examined with a sensitivity to unintended age discrimination, and to recruiting and retaining older learners.

These recommendations are based on the assumption that institutions serving adult learners are adaptive organizations, and that they are willing and able to accomodate all segments of the adult population. It appears that considerable benefit could be derived from policies and programs that would allow for learner differences regardless of age.

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Abstract

AN ETHNOGRAPHY OF PHYSICIANS FOR SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY:
NON-FORMAL ADULT EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL CHANGE?

Timothy T. Turner

PhD thesis under the supervision of Professor Jerold W. Apps
University of Wisconsin-Madison
225 N. Mills St.
Teacher Education Building Rm. 236
Madison, WI 53706

This study reveals the deep commitment of many PSR members, including non-medical practitioners, who volunteer time and effort to develop organization and program coherence in a hostile environment. They are characterized as having undergone what Mezirow calls "perspective transformation."

Physicians for Social Responsibility (PSR) offers a case in point of blurred educational form. Primarily non-formal adult education, its practice has been deeply influenced by formal educational practice. PSR attempts curricula initiatives within medical schools to broaden the definition of professional responsiblity. Simultaneously, PSR conducts symposia and produces films and books about the social and psychological costs of nuclear weapons development, intended for society-at-large. The assumption is that decisions about national security policy need to include a wider, better-educated public than has hitherto been the case.

The study concludes that PSR has been partially successful in gaining legitimacy for itself and the issues it represents. It has established a network of related professional organizations, and recently shared the Nobel Peace Prize. PSR has often implemented what Freire calls a 'banking model' of education in which PSR experts transmit 'objective facts' to passive audiences. Not only does this disempower people rather than stimulate them to become active citizens, it denies a fundamental debate: whose knowledge is most legitimate, and why.

AN ETHNOGRAPHY OF PHYSICIANS FOR SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY: NON-FORMAL ADULT EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL CHANGE?

Philip Coombs' division of formal and non-formal education provides the point of departure for this study. He suggests a broad and varied number of educational activities which occur, on paper, in discrete educational forms suited to distinctive functions for different clientele. In practice, such distinctions are not always clear nor appropriate. Physicians for Social Responsibility (PSR) offers a case in point.

The presence of different educational forms provokes important questions for adult educators. What is the relation between formal and non-formal education? How significant are the differences between these forms in terms of pedagogy and content? Are these educational forms complementary or oppositional? As Simkins notes, formal education is criticized for its costliness, irrelevance, and inflexibility, while non-formal education is described as more flexible, heterogeneous, often non-governmental, and voluntary (Fordham, 1979, p. 211).

There is a blurring of former distinctions between educational forms (and intent). From the catholic perspective of lifelong learning, non-formal adult education, hitherto overshadowed by the dominant presence of formal adult education, provides an avenue to accomodate rapid technical and social change. Formal adult education is currently hard-pressed to respond to demographic and market forces. For example, increasing numbers of older adults are returning to school later in life, on a part-time basis, while holding down part-time or full-time jobs. Also, this dominant educational form is meeting new competition from universities and the private sector. In addition, an orientation toward lifelong learning in non-formal education acknowledges significant learning which occurs outside the formal educational setting. Such learning "subsumes all stages and aspects of human development and the varied roles that individuals have to play at each stage" (Dave, 1976, p. 63).

In any case, regardless of form, formal and non-formal adult education exist within a dominant social paradigm. Apps identifies several characteristics of this paradigm: 1) specialization of human functions and educational aims; 2) an emphasis on efficiency; 3) the pre-eminence of the scientific method as the only valid approach to knowledge; 4) the ultimate purpose of education is for career; 5) time is linear; 6) change is incremental; and 7) "society is a collection of individuals pursuing their own interests and [ ] the function of institutions and government is to enhance this purpose for individuals" (Apps, 1985, pp 122-7). These Western or American societal values are all-pervasive and hence largely taken for granted or invisible to the general public. To what extent does PSR (or other non-formal

adult education for social change) attempt to address elements of this dominant paradigm?

PSR is described in the context of non-formal adult education, although such a definition is not ready-made for it. In part this is because PSR does not 'fit' neatly into available models of educational form. Most of the contemporary research on non-formal adult education has been conducted outside the United States, in development programs of the so-called 'Third World' (Coombs, 1976; Freire, 1985; Grandstaff, 1976; LaBelle, 1976; Paulston, 1972, Paulston, 1979). This study contributes empirical data about a voluntary association of professionals and laypersons in the United States, dealing not with family planning, irrigation projects, farm cooperatives, or adult literacy, as is the case with many of the non-formal adult education programs in the 'developing countries,' but an educational response to the nuclear arms race between 'developed countries.'

While the 'fit' between PSR and the various non-formal adult education models is by no means perfect, there is nonetheless a greater degree of correspondence than with formal adult education models. PSR has been primarily devoted to non-credentialing educational activities, although it has also achieved some success in convincing medical schools to provide electives on the medical effects of nuclear war. Few PSR members would conceive of their educational efforts as short-term, although they would concede most members work part-time, on a recurrent basis. While the information PSR collects and delivers is often practical, it also includes a considerable amount of theoretical material without direct practical applications, generated by experts in universities, the State Department, and 'think tanks' which may never be applied. While PSR is community based, it has gingerly broached social action and economic issues. National PSR has attempted to institutionalize its operations with a permanent paid staff, long range planning, lobbying, curriculum initiatives, and diversified, stable funding. In relative terms, PSR is self-governing and democratic. However there is increasing specialization of function and thus an implied and real hierarchy of roles.

As the largest of 41 national medical associations affiliated with the International Physicians for the Prevention of Nuclear War (IPPNW), PSR shared the 1985 Nobel Peace Prize for its efforts to call attention to the threat of nuclear annihilation. PSR chapters in cities in 48 states conduct educational activities to inform themselves and the public of current weapons development in both the United States and the Soviet Union which is seen within the context of American-Soviet relations. These subjects relate to PSR's concern with the cost of the arms race, the resultant drain of money from medical care, and the mass psychology of nuclear war. Speaker's bureaus have been established at both the national and local level, and regional conferences have been organized, often in conjunction with

medical schools and universities, to educate the general public. PSR conducts 'outreach' in the form of national and regional newsletters, networking with other individuals and organizations, workshops, and media events. A unifying theme is the organization's oft-cited metaphor that nuclear war is an incurable disease; the only realistic prescription is prevention.

Since 1961 PSR has attempted to redefine the professional responsibilities of the medical establishment, and convey to the general public the necessity for greater participation in the on-going national debate on both foreign and domestic policy. It has been an organization which attempts to provide an alternative perpective on national security - a perspective in opposition to that espoused by many in the legislative and executive branches of government, as well as in the Pentagon. PSR's focus on nuclear issues has also generated opposition within the medical establishment, which has frequently questioned any physician's competence to operate in the domain of other experts.

Social change is presumed to occur for PSR in its attempts at political education to "reduce the ideological power of the expert and begin the democractization of technical/administrative knowledge" (Apple, 1982, p. 62). Yet contradictions exist between the kinds of resistance attempted, and the reproduction of aspects of the very relations against which PSR defines itself. This occurs because the "form and content of eduction are affected, and in some cases determined, by the actual systems of political decision-making and economic maintenance" (Apple, 1978, p. 374). As a result, significant social change, whereby the power to define dominant cultural forms is decentralized and a more equitable distribution of cultural capital occurs among all segments of the population, is difficult to achieve.

The concept of cultural capital derives from neo-marzist thought, which posits knowledge as a commodity to be accumulated and used much in the same way that financial capital is accumulated and used in our "free-market" economy. Cultural capital constitutes symbolic property which is preserved and unequally distributed among social and economic classes according to the differential value of various knowledge claims. Hence cultural power accrues to monopolies in centralized forms of control. Apple writes that "just as our dominant economic institutions are structured so that those who inherit or already have economic capital do better, so too does cultural capital act in the same way within the state" (Apple, ibid., pg. 376).

PSR has contributed to the growing respectability of debate about nuclear weapons and peace making. It has in fact capitalized on its 'automatic' professional authority to receive a public hearing perhaps unmatched by other professional groups occupied with the issues it considers. As a result, PSR has partially succeeded in placing its agenda within other professional medical associations as well as the public arena. The 1986 edition of the Peace Resource book lists some 5, 700

volunteer associations (Neal, 1985, p. 11). Meanwhile within formal education, the number of colleges granting degrees in peace-related studies has vaulted from 5 to more than 100 during the last decade, with at least 74 private foundations now contributing money to peace studies, while elementary and secondary school teachers around the country are bringing peace perspectives into their classes (Marquand, 1986, p. BI). These figures suggest but do not prove a growing public awareness of the nuclear threat. However they can not say what educational or political influence will ensue.

The "new manner of thinking" which PSR strives to promote remains unknown, unaccepted, or little understood by many. Some of the barriers to achieving this goal include: 1) PSR's use of fear; 2) assumptions about individual change; 3) the debatable significance of "facts"; 4) the unintended disempowerment which occurs in PSR activities; 5) a faith in positivist science; and 6) inherent difficulties in attempting perspective transformation.

In addition, there are organizational barriers which reduce PSR's ability to educate professional groups (including themselves) and the general public. While PSR knows where it wants to go, it remains unclear about how best to get there. It has not adequately conceptualized the process of social change or established the requisite support network.

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ABSTRACT

Factors Affecting Self-Esteem in Adult Undergraduate Students

by Ross Van Ness
Professor of Adult and Community Education
School of Continuing Education
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana, 47306

Adult learners over twenty-five years of age taking undergraduate courses at Grissom Air Force Base, Indiana were surveyed to identify factors that might damage or increase the self-esteem of the students. Important factors were found to include: 1) Job requirements and a supervisor that is supportive of education; 2) Realistic class requirements and grading; 3) a supportive family; 4) concerned, student-centered professors; 5) stimulating classes; 6) a registration and advising system that is as problem-free as feasible.

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The Study

Adults over twenty five years of age taking undergraduate classes at Grissom Air Force Base (GAFB), were surveyed to identify the factors that had damaged self-esteem, those that had increased self-esteem, and those factors that respondents believed would increase self-esteem. Self-esteem for this study was defined as "belief in your capability or confidence as a student". Questionnaires were distributed during regular weekly classes held at GAFB. The instruments were completed in class and returned to the university office at Grissom. Both military and civilian students participated in the study, however, no attempt was made to identify military or non-military students. Students under twenty five years of age were surveyed; however, their questionnaires were separated and not used in the study.

The purpose of the study was to identify factors that by increase or reduction could positively influence the self-esteem of adult learners, and thereby have a helpful effect on adult learning.

Findings

Eighty-two questionnaires were returned by students twenty five years of age or older. Students were asked to state in general "how capable and competent you believe you are as a student". Responses were on a six point scale with one representing barely competent and six indicating extremely competent or capable. All but one of the students rated themselves at the upper four points of the scale, with seventy one students (86.7%) rating themselves in the upper three categories. Two students gave no response.

To the question "what has occured that has damaged your belief in your capability or confidence as a student?", responses were invited in six categories. Thirty students (36.6%) indicated no damaging experiences. Incidents related to the job or professional life received the highest response (twenty one persons or 25.6%). Heavy job responsibilities and job requirements were the most frequently cited damaging factors. Problems in advising or registration received seventeen responses (20.7%). These incidents related to poor or incorrect advising and to registration difficulties related to the off-campus site. Sixteen students (19.5%) listed in-class events or requirements as damaging. Difficult courses and low grades were the most frequently listed factors. Interaction with professors was listed by fourteen

respondents (17.1%) as damaging, with professors being "not understanding", uncaring, or insensitive as the overwhelming type of harmful interaction. Family or personal life received comment by thirteen students (15.8%), with too much time away from family cited as the factor that lowered their self-esteem. Six persons (7.3%) listed "other factors", including six different items related to lack of confidence or practices perceived as unfair.

The same six categories were used for students to indicate events that had raised or increased belief in confidence or capability as a student. Twenty six (31.7%) gave no response. In-class events were cited by thirty four persons (41.5%). Success in classes, high grades, and stimulating classes that provided new skills or ideas were the most frequently listed factors. Job and professional life was commented on by twenty eight respondants (34.1%). Being able to use the information from classes for a job upgrade and ability to do a better job were listed most frequently in this category. Family and personal life had twenty-seven responses (32.9%), with family support and support of spouse dominating the comments. Interaction with professors received twenty six comments (31.7%). Positive, caring, and supportive comments by professors were seen as important factors. Registration and advising were cited by eighteen students (21.9%), with helpful advisors and helpful university office personnel at GAFB being mentioned most frequently. Two students listed "other factors" (2.4%).

Factors that <u>would</u> raise self-esteem are listed in the order ranked by the respondents:

1. High grades received
2. A stimulating or rewarding class
3. Completing a difficult assignment
4. Completion of a degree
5. Expression of confidence by a professor
6. Praise by a professor
7. Support from spouse or closest friend
8. Telling yourself you are capable
9. Support from your supervisor or manager
10. Other

Conclusions

Based on the responses obtained, the conclusions drawn from the study are:

1. Adult college students over twenty five years of age have a positive self image as students once they have successfully completed one or more college courses.

2. Where work requirements conflict with school requirements, employers and especially supervisors need to be supportive

of the student-worker as a person.

3. Roadblocks or impediments to completing educational requirements are seen not just as problems by the adult student, but as damaging to the student's self confidence.

4. Professors are not looked to as sources of self confidence. Their comments, however, can damage or build self-esteem. Their perceived interest, understanding, and concern for students can have similar effects.

5. Classroom events need to include realistic course requirements and activities that help students learn rather then just presenting information or making judgments about students' work.

6. Family members, especially spouses, need to be as supportive and encouraging as feasible, helping to reduce guilt that time is spent studying rather than with the family.

7. Students need training to help them look internally at their qualities and learning skills, rather than to rely heavily on grades or comments by professors to guage their academic ability.

8. Since high grades are related to self-esteem, grades should be awarded carefully, humanely, and related to the effort as well as the achievement of the adult learner.

9. Students need accurate, timely advising and a simple, problem-free registration procedure to support their self-esteem.

Computer Awareness for Adults

Deborah L. Young and David R. Vernon, Ph.D.
Computer Coordinators
Eastern Michigan University

Mailing address:
School and Educational Services Center
111 King Hall
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197

(Please send correspondence to Deborah Young.)

ABSTRACT

Although there are questions about the values of teaching programming as a means to learn about computers, most of the professional literature on teaching adults about computers emphasizes programming, usually in BASIC. Indications are that people taking programming and technical courses before they are ready may increase rather than decrease their apprehensions. This study reports the results of an alternative means of helping adults become confident using computers. In a sixteen session course over an eight week period, students were involved in meaningful tasks with computer applications programs--word processing, data base, spread sheet, and graphs. Teaching/learning activities were designed to relate each application program to a daily-life situation. The hypothesis was that such a holistic, hands-on approach to teaching computer awareness would positively affect adult learners' (1) knowledge, (2) attitude, and (3) use of computers. The subjects were industrial workers who attended classes before or after their shifts. Pre- and post-assessment instruments were administered. The results indicated positive growth in the three dimensions.

COMPUTER AWARENESS FOR ADULTS

Since technology is an important and recent development in today's society, adults are facing many changes in their lives at home and at work. Many adults recognize that they should become familiar with technology. Some are resistant to change. Others would like to learn but feel intimidated by machines and are fearful about learning new information and skills. Employers are concerned that workers become comfortable with the technology that is appearing today. They need employees who are not afraid to touch the equipment and will even take an interest in it to see how they can improve the conditions and efficiency of the machinery. They also need employees who understand what technology really means to their own jobs and are willing to upgrade their skills.

To meet the needs in a local industrial setting, the School and Educational Services Center of the College of Education at Eastern Michigan University received a contract to implement a computer awareness project. The focus was upon helping workers learn how to use computers in general, rather than upon training for specific equipment in the workplace. Therefore, computer awareness was interpreted as knowing how to use a computer for personal daily-life applications. In preparation, the staff investigated professional literature for curriculum plans and practices related to teaching about computers to adult learners.

The materials located in the literature tended to be geared toward teachers or adults interested in programming (Joseph, 1983; Walter, 1983). Most curricula were for K-12 (Cunningham et al, 1981; Cupertino Union School District, 1983; Leon County School District, 1980). Each instructor was expected to develop his/her own course (Allen, 1984), therefore the philosophy of the educator influenced the types of information emphasized in each course. Generally, the teaching approach was to have the students write programs, usually in BASIC, away from a computer, after which the programs were then entered and tested. Computers were often not present during class time.

Nordman (1982) stated that the introduction of programming, unless requested by participants, may promote computerphobia. Furthermore, teachers of computer courses in local adult education programs reported to the staff that many of their students were dropping the courses in frustration. These teachers were focussing on programming and mechanical features of the computer. Based on insights gained from these teachers and on an awareness of the need for direct experiences in adult learning (Knowles, 1980), the staff was concerned that students could complete the activities in a BASIC course yet still not feel confident about using computers.

Could computer awareness be learned through hands-on experiences? If so, how could this be implemented beginning with the first few minutes of the first class? Would applications

programs be a meaningful way to lead adults to realize the immediate use of computers outside of the classroom? How could these applications programs be presented holisticly, i.e., so the students first get an overview of each program and then learn specific commands to accomplish particular tasks? Would the students feel comfortable and develop positive attitudes if the tasks and discussions were related to the adults' personal lives? What effects would such experiences have on the learner's confidence to operate the computer? As a result, would adults find it easier to cope with technology?

A holistic, hands-on approach was implemented in this project. Student participation was required from the very start of the class. Tasks using common applications programs--word processing, data bases, spread sheets, and graphs--formed the basis of the lessons. Commands and features were provided as needs arose. Students were involved in meaningful projects which created these needs, such as writing letters and newspaper articles, creating a home inventory, developing a family budget, and graphing Uncle Sam's share of the weekly paycheck.

The hypothesis was that a holistic, hands-on approach to teaching computer awareness will positively affect adult learners' attitudes, knowledge, and use of computers.

The basic objectives of this project are for the employees to: (1) gain knowledge of computer terminology (Knowledge); (2) overcome fears and apprehensions about using technology (Attitude); and (3) learn what common application programs can do (Use).

Method

Design

Workers self-selected into the computer classes that best fit their personal schedules. The classes met twice weekly for one and one-half hours for a period of eight weeks. Thus, each participant received three hours of instruction and practice a week, for a total of 24 hours. From three to six classes were offered in each two month period for a total of 20 classes during the time of this study. Pre- and post-assessments were used to measure change. The workers attending classes were given questionnaires at the beginning of the first and last class sessions.

Instruments

The questionnaire used at pre- and post-assessment times was made up of 49 items relating to the three assessment dimensions: (1) Knowledge, (2) Attitude, and (3) Use. Each item required a rating from 1 (minimum) to 4 (maximum). In addition, a 10-item demographics questionnaire was included with the pre-assessment instrument.

Results

The items were compiled by assessment dimension: (1) Knowledge, (2) Attitude, and (3) Use. Paired t-tests were conducted between pre- and post-assessments for each dimension. Significant differences ($p<.001$) were found for each dimension. The results are shown in Table 1.

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Discussion

Findings

Significant differences between pre- and post-assessment scores were found for each of the three assessment dimensions. Each difference is a positive one. The Knowledge and Use scores show greater knowledge and more use at the post-assessment relative to the pre-assessment scores. The Attitude score reflects a more positive attitude towards computers.

The greatest change was on the Knowledge dimension. This may be because content is easier to teach than helping change students' attitudes about computers or increasing students' use of computers. It is also easier to assess Knowledge than the other dimensions.

Further supporting these results are structured interviews and anecdotal reports gathered during the first year of the project. Students and former students seem quite comfortable to share their feelings about the value of the course. Many students have said that they know much more about computers and how to use them as compared to before taking the class. They also feel better about themselves, especially with regard to computers in their personal and work lives.

For example, one student became so interested, she bought a personal computer and started her own newspaper for her assembly line at the plant. This was done entirely with her own funds and on her own time. Another student had been very apprehensive about using the computer at his work station. His work required him to search a data base, but he would never do it without his supervisor's help. By the end of the course, he was so confident that he no longer needed supervision when using the computer.

Application

Both formal and informal assessments make it possible to check the efficiency of the methods used in relation to the course objectives. The students who complete this course show growth in all three areas: Knowledge, Attitude, and Use. Furthermore, their

Table 1 Mean scores for assessment dimensions

Assessment Dimension	N	Pre-	Post-	t-stat	Significance
Knowledge	117	1.64	3.16	26.648	.000
Attitude	112	2.42	2.86	11.972	.000
Use	123	1.45	2.66	19.488	.000

Note. Maximum possible = 4.

comments indicate more confidence, use of computer terminology, and awareness of their ability to use computer programs to do what they want. An effective way to help adults become comfortable with, and knowledgeable about, computers is to involve them immediately with hands-on experiences on the computer using applications that are specifically relevant to them.

Although this study was geared to an industrial setting, a holistic, hands-on approach would seem appropriate for adults in other situations. Studies need to be carried out involving teachers, hospital employees, office workers, parents, senior citizens, and other adult populations to ascertain the effectiveness of this approach in helping people feel confident in adapting to technological changes in society.

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Issues in the Practice of Action Research*

Ximena Zuniga
Instructor, Women's Studies Center
Doctoral Candidate in Adult & Continuing Education at the University of Michigan
1865 Lake Lila Lane, #83
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48105

Howard A. Smith
Doctoral student in Educational Psychologhy at the University of Michigan
416 Kellogg, #58
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48105

Abstract: The authors explore some issues arising in the practice of Action Research. Several interviews were conducted with identified practitioners of Action Research. Three issues in the practice of Action Research are identified and discussed in depth. First, what kind of relationships exist in the practice of Action Research between 'Action' and 'Research?' Second, what kind of roles do Action Researchers find themselves adopting in the practice of Action Research? Finally, what kind of relationships between Action Researchers and informants/program participants are likely to evolve in the practice of Action Research.

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Issues in the Practice of Action Research

Action Research (AR) has had a long history of use within the social sciences, particularly as a strategy to relate theory and practice (Lewin 1946, Argyris 1985). The field of education was quite early in its adoption of AR as a strategy for the development of practice or the diffusion of innovations (Corey 1953).

Within education there have are a variety of approaches utilized in AR (Carr & Kemmis, 1984; Kelly, 1985). Despite the wide discussion of the theories involved in AR, there has been little appreciation of the issues that educational action researchers will encounter in their practice. Without an appreciation of the concerns that actual action researchers encounter, little can be done to alert current or potential practitioners to methods for resolving the difficult issues that await them.

A grounded theory approach to data collection and data analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was followed to generate and to explore the issues that Action Researchers (AR'rs) encounter in their practice of AR. Three issues clearly arise from our research and in this paper, we will address them in turn. The first issue is the relationship between action and research in AR. The second issue is the variety of roles that AR'rs find themselves taking on in their AR work. And, the third and final issue we address is the kinds of relationships that AR'rs develop with their program participants.

Action and Research

Action researchers pursue a wide variety of goals through their action research work. Some engage in AR to test and evaluate social theories in social settings. Others engage in action research to gather situational information to affect social change. And others engage in action research to design and implement (and, in some instances, evaluate) data-based social interventions.

In order to achieve such goals, action researchers resort to different ways of integrating/relating "research" and "action" in their work. Some action researchers follow a linear movement of knowledge utilization (ie., a series of sequential activities starting from knowledge development and moving toward utilization). For others there is a continual tension or system of loops between "research" and "action" where both components shift in precedence throughout their action research work.

Negotiating the relationship between "action" and "research" in the context of a particular project is often an issue for many action researchers. For instance, the need for a well designed spiral cycle of research and intervention, or for a systematic and in-depth study before initiating action would often imply stressing the research process at the expense of action taking. On the other hand, the need to intervene or to bring resources together to affect social change might imply stressing the action agenda. As one of our informants puts it, the major difficulty he encountered was "balancing the intervention and the research during the implementation of the project".

Some of the tension experienced in trying to "juggle with the two (action and research)" is not only due to conflicting needs of both, but, it is also a result of the priorities set by funders. Along this line, another AR'r involved in a community development action research project, said the following: "we were interested in both action and research. However, the funder was more interested in the action component and not the research component. So while we had to juggle our time in terms of both components, we had to keep in mind that we weren't being funded for the research."

Conflicting needs may in turn create tensions in terms of how much time and

energy should be spent on the research compared to the action in the field. As the action researcher who was engaged in the community development project put it, "action and research takes a lot of time," and according to her this becomes problematic when community people are involved in the development of the project, because community members have other responsibilities such as work and families. As this AR'r admitted somewhat ruefully, "this (project) was not the most important thing in their lives as it was in mine."

The tensions resulting from the conflicting demands between these two components may not only affect the way these demands are actually negotiated in a particular project, but it may also impact the research team. One of our informants felt a lot of tension around this issue within his research team:

> "I was the main advocate in the project for the research side of it, other people understood and supported me to a certain extent but they wanted to get to the intervention (sooner), I was committed to do a quality job on the research, I worried more about it because I was more committed to the research side of it, other people were more worried about 'are we really satisfying these constituencies out there', 'are we getting the information they need', 'are we getting ourselves close to doing something in terms of applying what we have learned.'"

The relationship between action and research is also frequently made more complex when the research agenda stresses an ongoing evaluation of the action component, or when the intervention is subject to systematic observation and measurement procedures. One of our respondents who has worked as an action researcher in organizations, pointed to the difficulty of having "an awful lot of action going on, and damm little research .... (when) the action takes precedence." According to this informant, this tension is heightened when a clients demands for organizational interventions are at odds with attempting to measure and analyze results. In a similar vein, another informant indicated that the ongoing evaluation of the action component "through field notes, interviews, and so forth became unrealistic (and time-consuming) over time."

It is clear from this short discussion that there are different ways of combining action and research, and this relationship is frequently shaped by the goals that AR'rs hold for their project. However, at the same time, it would appear that regardless of the goals that are held for a particular AR project, some tensions between Action and Research will exist and they will have to be negotiated in the AR process. Finally, since the AR usually calls for a set of activities that are beyond scope of traditional research, AR'rs will probably find themselves taking on roles would be unfamiliar to more traditional researchers.

Roles of Action Researchers

> "(In addition to being a researcher) I've been a catalyst in many ways ... an organizational development type consultant, grantwriter, educator, constantly trying to convey information, giving people alternate frameworks for understanding the situation they are in, turn them in to resources in other places ..., networking, advocate, therapist, mediator ... (In this project) I have probably used more of my skill repertoire than anything I've done before, in fact my group skills and clinical skills have been invaluable."

As the preceding account suggests, one feature that distinguishes AR from other kinds of more traditional research is the additional roles that AR'rs must

take on to complete their AR work. It is important then to understand the variety and nature of these roles in order to understand the full complexity facing AR'rs in their work.

The above quote easily identifies eight different roles that this particular AR project required at some point in the process. A few of these roles are, of course, endemic to all research activities (a seeker of funds, for instance). There were also roles that other AR'rs identified which would be a part of most research activities as well (i.e. data analyzer). However, there are several roles that AR'rs seem to find themselves taking on only in the course of their AR work. While there is not sufficient time or space to fully address all of these roles, a brief listing and description of each of these roles is necessary to this discussion:

- O.D. consultant - develops techniques for analyzing and addressing organizational problems.
- Educator - Assists groups and organizations in considering new information, approaches, or ways of seeing the situations that they are involved in.
- Networker - connects actors in the AR process to additional resources.
- Advocate - supports goals of groups or organization and promotes these goals with opponents or the wider community.
- Therapist - counsels individuals involved in, or affected by AR process.
- Mediator - assists parties in resolving disputes.
- Catalyst - moves AR process along. Develops energy, interest, and ability for the completion of AR process.
- Coordinator - administrates and/or coordinates the process. (see Lippitt & Lippitt 1978, or Laue & Cormick 1976)

The roles of catalyst and educator were frequently mentioned by many of the AR'rs that we spoke with as being particularly significant in their AR work. In the quotation that begins this section it is suggested that the roles of catalyst and educator are integral to that AR project. As you will see, these roles are important in other AR projects as well.

The following account, offered by an AR'r who works with school systems, illustrates very clearly the roles of coordinating and networking in the AR process:

> "Our role involved organizing and managing the study. We (university researchers) invited educators to participate, we set up an initial meeting, we convened the subsequent group meetings, visited schools, assisted teachers by providing them with (equipment & materials), that they could use or not, emotional support, and advice about monitoring. Also the role of trying to sharpen perspectives as they emerge, although that was less needed as the study progressed."

The above account also points to the educational and catalyst role of this particular AR'r and how these roles may change as the process moves along. This shifting of roles was also articulated by another AR'r working in a community development project, "we tried to see ourselves as facilitators, catalysts, enablers, question raisers . . . (but) a large part of our role was transferring these skills to the community members (involved in the project)."

A number of tensions can arise for the AR'r when trying to deal with the varied demands imposed by these roles. There seems to be strong tension between the role of project coordinator and catalyst when these roles emphasize different aspects of the ongoing AR process. As one informant reported the conflict arises because the first one "looks for some kind of identifiable product" and the second "looks for the process."

There can also be the occasion when tensions/dilemmas emerge within the context of one role. For example, action researchers who are committed to transferring their skills to the practitioners or community people involved in the project experience a lot of tension between their catalyst roles and their expert roles. As one AR'r puts it, "conflict arises when you (try to figure out what to do around the following questions): Do you offer advice vs. try to facilitate? Do you raise questions vs. try to provide answers?"

As you can see action researchers play a wide variety of roles while conducting their work, and these roles call for a multiple range of skills. These roles often involve a wide range of activities related to managing/coordinating the project for planning and implementing the AR activities, and facilitating the process itself. And, as we have seen, many of these roles can conflict with each other, and sometimes they can conflict within themselves. In the next section we will show that in addition to taking new roles, AR work frequently requires that AR'rs relate to informants/program participants in new ways.

Relationship to Participants

> "I believe there are possibilities for learning through applied research that are not available to those who stick to basic research, but those possibilities become apparent only as we recognize that *there are distinctively different types of applied social research* I categorize these types in terms of the nature of the involvement of the research subjects in the research process."(Whyte, 1984)

The above was taken from William Foote Whyte's somewhat autobiographical account of his fifty years of experience in the behavioral sciences. In this particular volume he describes three different approaches to applied social research. The first approach is one where the researcher directs and the participants react. The second approach is one where there is some interaction amongst the needs of the researcher and the participants, but the researcher ultimately retains control of the process throughout. And finally, there is that type of applied social research where the researcher and participants enter into a collaborative relationship and mutually decide the direction the research process would take. For the purposes of discussing the kinds of relationships that evolve between researcher and participant in AR, Dr. Whyte's outline can be helpful.

The first kind of AR'r would most likely to see the participant as some kind of informant or supplier of data. One of our colleagues was involved in a project where they looked at the impact of feeding back data collected in a manufacturing organization. While observers might be initially inclined to categorize this kind of project under the second heading put forth by Whyte, the way this particular AR'r saw his informants would place him in the first category. "We thought we saw an intersection between their problem and our theoretical interest. We did consulting but we would have preferred to stay home. In these processes the client typically wants discussion, interpretation, a chance to sit down and puzzle out the implications . . . . It was a bargain for them. On our side, we gained access."

The second category is one that is commonly labeled 'change agentry.' This process is one where the action researcher/change agent develops a process to

identify and solve problems and involves some of those who are immediate members of the situation. One of the people that we spoke to discussed his efforts to establish a program that would enhance the 'quality-of-workinglife' in another manufacturing organization. (What we were involved in) "is the whole notion of getting the participants involved in the defining of problems (that they face), defining of data needs, interpreting data, and working on the implications of data for action."

In terms of Whyte's third category we had several clear examples of where the AR'r developed direct collaborative relationships with lay people or other practitioners. Perhaps the clearest example was the AR'r who was involved with a community interested in establishing and achieving particular goals. He saw the participants as inevitably having responsibility for any project that was undertaken. And so, from the outset of the project he would, "go out and engage in a series of conversations with a particular network of people to try and mobilize the energy that it would take to accomplish those things that the community has decided need being done."

It should be said that there are many occasions when Whyte's typology would not be immediately appropriate. There were many examples of AR that would be forced into more than one typology. Specifically, these instances would be the times that AR's were involved in more than one process at the same time. Two of the colleagues that we spoke with had been involved in projects where they had a strong action component in which they worked directly with the members of the situation in trying to identify and solve problems. However at the same time, these colleagues also had strong research component where they observed the action-taking behavior of participants, in this component the participants were only suppliers of data, and, it is possible that the participants were unaware that such observation or data collection was taking place.

In conclusion, we believe that the very nature of Action Research is to both intervene and develop knowledge. It is the way that these events are combined, and the fact that this work is a clear departure from much of traditional social science that create many of the issues that we have discussed. Another important point in this discussion is the variety of approaches that have been utilized in doing AR. Finally, throughout our discussions with AR'rs, it was clear that despite the many difficult and thorny issues that arose from doing this kind of work, it was easily the most exciting and dynamic endeavor that most of them had been involved in.

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